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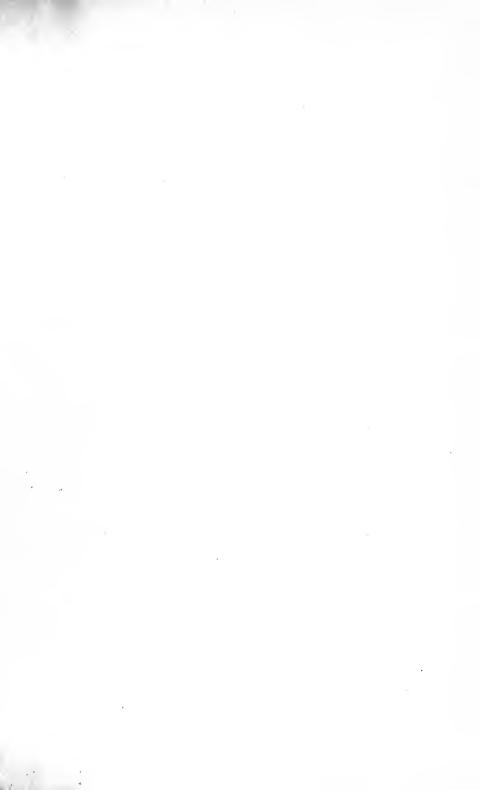
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OF THE

NEW HIGH GERMAN LANGUAGE

BY

ARWID JOHANNSON, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF GERMAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN THE VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER.

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PALMER, HOWE & CO.

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Preface.

To urge the value of Phonetics for the theoretical and practical study of languages would be "to carry owls to Athens". The Victoria University of Manchester took a step in the right direction, when, with the view of testing the pronunciation, it introduced an oral examination in modern languages for the Pass Degree; since the establishment of the Honours School for modern languages theoretical questions in Phonetics have always been asked in the oral examination; and the regulations for the M.A. examination expressly recognise Phonetics as a subject of examination, although they adopt — in order not to alarm nervous minds — a somewhat "bashful" wording: "oral examination in the theory and practice of pronunciation".

The nucleus of this book is formed by my notes for lectures in Phonetics given by me in Uppsala 1889, 1891, 1893, but they have, of course, undergone great alterations: whilst, on one hand, in some respects they have been eonsiderably expanded, and I have endeavoured to turn to the best advantage the results of the researches of recent years; on the other hand, they have been abbreviated, as I have eliminated all the discussions about the numerous phonetical points at issue, in order to give a more practical character to the book, and not increase its volume unduly: I hope, μηδέν ἄγαν will hold good also here. If therefore the statements seem to wear quite an apodictic form, I do not wish to imply by this that the given explanation or pronunciation is the only admissible one, but I wish to say that it is the right one or the preferable one according to my conviction, the reasons for which I cannot state in this little book. My object is only to give the basis for phonetical instruction; the interpretation is left altogether to the teacher, as Phonetics is not a science which can or should be learned in an autodidactical way.

The book is intended for a systematical study; an isolated phonetical fact, picked out of the context by an uninitiated person, might be productive of mischief instead of profit. I must therefore address a request to those who are not willing to work through the book systematically, to leave it unopened.

For the composition of my Phonetics I have, of course, consulted the standard works, mentioned on page IX, and other minor writings, quoted by them. To all of them I recognise willingly my debt; but more than to them, and more than I can exactly estimate, I owe a debt of gratitude to my teacher, Professor E. Sievers, with whom in private conversation I have had the advantage of discussing so many phonetical questions during my sojourn in Tübingen and Halle in former years.

As regards the Diagrams given on the six Plates, Fig. II—VI are reproductions slightly modified: I am indebted to J. N. Czermak's Gesammelte Schriften, Bd. II (W. Engelmann, Leipzig 1879) for Fig. II and V, and to F. Techmer's Naturwissenschaftliche Analyse und Synthese (in Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft, Bd. I. J. A. Barth, Leipzig 1884) for Fig. III, IV, and VI. The rest I have drawn on the basis of my own observations. As in ascertaining the position of the organs of speech I limited myself to the use of a laryngoscope, mirrors, and straightened watch-springs, to the ends of which I fastened pieces of cork of different sizes, the Diagrams cannot claim to be exact in all details. I venture, however, to hope that they will nevertheless be able to impart a fairly correct general impression.

Finally, it is a pleasant duty to me, to express my thanks to Prof. W. C. Summers of Sheffield, who has had the kindness to improve the English style of the book.

Horgr, Didsbury, 1904.

Contents.

			Page
	Pri	ncipal books on Phonetics	. IX
	Not	tes on Spelling, Asterisks, and Types	
	Cor	rigenda	. X
ſ.	Intro	oduction §§ 1-7.	
			. 1
		Definition of Phonetics	
	2.	6	
	3.		
		logical factors	
		Letter and sound	
		Words and stress-groups	
		New High German literary language	
	7.	The best German	. 3
н.	The	Organs of Speech and their Functions §§ 8-16.	
	8.		. 5
	9.		
	10.	The larynx	
	11.		
	12.		
	13.	- ,	
	14.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	-
	15.		•
		Voiced — voiceless; oral — nasal; consonant — vow	
	10.	voiced — voiceless, orar — nasar, consonant — vow	ei J
Ш	. Co	nsonantism §§ 17—55.	
	17.	Consonantal symbols and key-words	. 11
	18.		
	19.		
	20.		
	21.		
	22.		
	23.		
		Labiodental place of interception	
	25.	•	
	26.		
	27.		
		Committee to state in Separation 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	

		•	~,,
	28.	Laryngeal occlusive sound	19
		Mediopalatal occlusive sounds	20
	30.		22
	31.	Labiodental occlusive sound	22
	32.	Bilabial occlusive sounds	22
	33.	Fricatives in general; affricates	22
	34.	Laryngeal fricative; aspirates	22
	35.	Mediopalatal fricatives	23
	36.	Prepalatal fricatives	24
	37.	Alveolar fricatives	24
	38.	Labiodental fricatives	26
	39.	Bilabial fricative	26
	40.	Trills in general	26
	41.	Uvular trills	
	42.	Lateral sounds in general	27
	43.	Alveolar-lateral sounds	28
		Nasals in general	28
	45.		28
			29
		Alveolar nasals	29
	47.		29
	48.		29 29
	49.		
	50.	,	29
	51.		30
		Voiced and voiceless trills, lateral and nasal sounds.	32
	53.		32
	54.	•	34
	55.	Consonants used as vowels	35
IV.	Vo	calism §§ 56-74.	
1,,	56.		36
	57.		38
			38
	58.		39
	59	Oral and nasal vowels	- 39 - 39
	60.		40
	61.		40
	62.		40
	63.		
	64.	Relations between tense — lax and long — short vowels	41
	65.	The long e-sounds: \bar{e}^1 and \bar{e}^2	42
1	66.		42
	67.		43
	68.		44
1	69.		45
	70.		45
1	71.	Relation to een (normal-)long and over-long vowels	46
1	72.	, ,	47
1	73.		49
1	74.		49

			Page
V.	Syn	thesis §§ 75—83.	
	75.	Synthesis in general	51
	76.	Glides; simplification of articulation	51
	77.	Transference of the place of explosion in occlusive	
		sounds	51
	78.	Anticipation of articulation; opening of occlusive sounds	
		without explosion	52
	79.		52
	80.	Reduction of groups of consonants	53
	81.	Definition of syllable; sonoric and dynamic syllables	54
	82.	Separation of syllables in uncompounded words	55 50
	83.	Syllabic limit in compounds	56
VI.	. Ac	centuation §§ 84—126.	
	84.	Definition of accent	58
		Syllable-accent; stress-group-accent; sentence-accent.	
		Word-accent	58
	86.		
		siological factors in the word-accent and sentence-	
		accent	59
	87.		60
	88.	Occurrence of pitch	60
	89.		61
	90.	Stresslessness	61
	91.		62
	92.		63
	93.		63
	94.	r	63
	95.		64
	96.		65
	97.		
	00	compounds, and in juxtapositions	65
	98.		0.0
	00	pound, on the second part in a verbal compound.	66
	99. 100.		66 67
	100.		68
	101.		90
	102.	minal accentuation by the verbal	70
	103.		70
	104.		71
	105.		71
	106.		71
	107.		73
	108.		73
	109.	. Nomen+verb	74
	110		74

111.	Bimembral juxtapositions have the principal stress on			
	the second part; verbal ones on the adverbial element 75			
	Verbal juxtapositions with the principal stress on the verb 75			
113.	Nominal juxtapositions with a secondary stress on the			
111	last part			
	Juxtapositions with numerals as last part			
	Juxtapositions with pronouns as last part			
116.	Juxtapositions with indeclinabilia as last part 77			
111.	Foreign words with retracted accent			
110.	Foreign words with foreign accent kept			
119. The principal ends of foreign words and their accentuation				
120.	tuation			
	nations			
121.	Stress-groups and sentence-stress in general 85			
	Grammatical sentence-stress; notional and relational			
	words			
123.	Gradation of the grammatical sentence-stress in notional			
	words			
124.	Grammatical sentence-stress in notional words closely			
	connected with each other 87			
125.	Logical and psychological sentence-stresses 88			
126.	Physiological sentence-stress 88			
	x: Materials for practical exercises			
	Diagrams.			
Plate :				
Plate 1				
Plate 1				
Plate				
Plate				
Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords.			
Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords.			
Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VI. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips.			
Plate '	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Lyular v.			
Plate '	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VI. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VII. Uvular r. Fig. IX. Mediopalatal sounds.			
Plate '	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VI. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VII. Uvular r. Fig. IX. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives.			
Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. IX. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds.			
Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. IX. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The positions of the lips. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. X. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds. Fig. XII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIII. Alveolar z and s. Fig. XIV. Labindental counds.			
Plate Plate	I. Fig. I. The organs of speech. Fig. II. The cartilages of the larynx. Fig. III. The cartilago thyreoidea. Fig. IV. The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea. Fig. V. The real and spurious vocal chords. Fig. VII. The forms of the glottis. Fig. VIII. Uvular r. Fig. IX. Mediopalatal sounds. Fig. X. Prepalatal fricatives. Fig. XI. Alveolar sounds.			

Principal Books on Phonetics.

General Phonetics.

- Otto Jespersen, Fonetik, en systematisk fremstilling af læren om sproglyd. København 1897—1899. (His Lehrbuch der Phonetik is an abbreviated translation by H. Davidsen. Leipzig und Berlin 1904.)
- - Phonetische Grundfragen. Leipzig und Berlin 1904.
- E. W. Scripture, The Elements of Experimental Phonetics. New York and London 1902.
- Eduard Sievers, Grundzüge der Phonetik. 5. Auflage. Leipzig 1901.
- Phonetik (in Paul's Grundrisz der Germanischen Philologie. 2. Auflage. Band I. Straszburg 1901).
- Johan Storm, Englische Philologie (Band I. 1: Phonetik und Aussprache). 2. Auflage. Leipzig 1892.
- Henry Sweet, A Primer of Phonetics. 2nd Edition. Oxford 1902.
- F. Techmer, Naturwissenschaftliche Analyse und Synthese der hörbaren Sprache (in: Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft. Band I. Leipzig 1884).
- M. Trautmann, Die Sprachlaute im allgemeinen und die Laute des Englischen, Französischen und Deutschen im besondren. Leipzig 1884-1886 (out of print).
- Kleine Lautlehre des Deutschen, Französischen und Englischen. Bonn 1903.
- Wilhelm Vietor, Elemente der Phonetik des Deutschen, Englischen und Französischen. 4. Auflage. Leipzig 1898.

German Phonetics.

- Wilhelm Braune, Über die Einigung der deutschen Aussprache. Halle 1905.
- Otto Bremer, Deutsche Phonetik. Leipzig 1893.
- George Hempl, German Orthography and Phonology. I. Boston and London 1897 (important for the accentuation).
- J. Minor, Neuhochdeutsche Metrik. 2. Auflage. Straszburg 1902 (important for the accentuation).
- Theodor Siebs, Deutsche Bühnenaussprache. 2. Auflage. Berlin 1901.
- Wilhelm Victor, German Pronunciation: Practice and Theory. 3rd Edition. Leipzig 1903.

Notes on Spelling, Asterisks, and Types.

All the German words are given in the official spelling of 1901, sanctioned by the governments of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland (cf. K. Duden, Orthographisches Wörterverzeichnis der deutschen Sprache. Leipzig und Wien).

A word which is adduced as an individual or isolated example for a statement is marked by an **asterisk**, whilst typical examples remain unmarked; e. g. *flugs (§ 29 Note 1) means that only in this word g is to be pronounced as k: flu^2ks ; whilst elsewhere, in combination with s, it has always the value of ch: Flugs, Trugs etc. $fl\bar{u}^1h^2s$, $tr\bar{u}^1h^2s$ etc.

German words are spaced; single letters are given in bold types; but single sounds or phonetical symbols are printed in italics.

The keys to these are given in § 17 and 56.

Corrigenda.

§ 6 note: read Karlsruhe instead of Mannheim. Page 11: r. ts, tš i. o. st, št. § 17, 5: r. $2i^2ntr^2i^2g^2$. § 17, 9: r. $ma^2 nn e^{-it}$. § 17, 21: r. $kh \hat{o}^2 m^1 p^1 a^2 n \hat{i}^1$. § 17, 23: add Abfall. § 20 note 1: r. by almost all i.o. by all. § 21 note 1: strike out Wagner, wågnr, Vogler fölglr. § 21 note 2: r. $h^2 \dot{a}^2 o^2 s$. § 29 note 2: r. $w \dot{e}^2 k s l$; $\dot{e} \dot{o}^2 k s \partial^1$. § 54: r. $n\delta^1 t : \hat{p}^2 \hat{q}^2 s g \hat{a}^2 n$. § 54 note 2: r. $mi^2 \tilde{t} h \hat{a}^2 h^2$ (second word); $2\dot{a}^2h^2\bar{t}si^2h^1$ (second word); $h\dot{a}^2lp^1ri^2sm^1\ddot{a}^2$ and $h\dot{a}^2l\bar{p}^1ri^2sm^1\ddot{a}^2$; eèkslléents and eèkslléents. § 55: r. in sonantal or consonantal function i. o. or i^2 . § 56, 8: r. $\delta \hat{a}^2 s \partial^1$; $p^1 \bar{a}^2 z i^2 \delta^1 n$. § 56, 17: r. $bi^2\ell^2$. § 56, 20: r. Coeur i. o. Co. § 58: r. $?\dot{\phi}^1 q^1 \dot{\phi}^1$; in the same line add q after a voiceless; r. q i. o. q. § 59: r. $\dot{s}\dot{a}^2rla^2th\dot{a}^2n$; $p^1h\dot{a}^2st\dot{i}^2l\dot{i}^2\ddot{b}^1n$. § 65: r. $\dot{a}^2th\dot{e}^1n\dot{e}^1$; $\hat{e}^{2}\hat{d}^{2}\hat{w}\hat{e}^{1}$; $\hat{k}h\hat{d}^{2}f\hat{e}^{1}$; $\hat{d}\hat{e}^{2}m\hat{o}^{1}n$. § 66: r. $\hat{e}^{2}h\hat{e}^{1}n\hat{e}^{1}$. § 69, 4: r. $\hat{k}h\bar{a}^{2}m$. § 70, 4: r. lo2rt. § 70, 6: r. me2thá2fr. § 72, 3, a: r. :12rdi2\$. § 73: r. $p^1r\dot{\sigma}^1bi^1rn$; $kh\dot{\sigma}^1r\dot{a}^2l$; $\dot{s}t\dot{a}^1d\dot{e}^2nt$; $t\dot{s}i^1r\dot{a}^2t$; $j\dot{a}^1l\dot{i}^1$; $i\dot{a}^2lz\dot{\sigma}^1$. § 74: r. if it i. o. if is; r. $f\bar{o}^{1}r$. § 79, 1: r. $kh\dot{u}^{2}n\bar{s}t\ddot{u}^{2}k$ (second word). § 83: r. $i^2ntre^2s\delta^1$ and $i^2ntre^2s\delta^1$; $he^1r\delta^2e^2n$; ri2tr-thů1m. Page 59: r. glücklich. § 95: r. lútherisch (second word). § 106, II, 1: r. unäufhaltsam. Page 80: r. Phòtográph. § 120, 1: r. arábiseh. (Several misprints appeared only in the final printing, owing to breaking off of the accents and diacritics added to the types in easting.)

I. Introduction.

- 1. Phonetics is the science which deals with the production and the nature of speech-sounds, their Definition combination into groups (syllables, words, sen-of phonetics. tences), and the general laws for their alterations.
- 2. If a thought or sensation is to be conveyed to another person by means of speech, psychological, physiological, and physical factors have to act. If we have a thought or a sensation in our intellectorium and (underthe intention to express it (psychological factor), standing). by means of certain nerves, starting from the centre of speech (in the cortex of the left cerebral hemisphere), certain organs of speech are set in motion (physiological factor). These organs of speech produce a vibration of the air, the waves of sound (physical factor), which strike the ear (physical factor), and which by means of certain organs and nerves are conveyed to the acoustic centre of the brain (physiological factor), and then in the intellectorium again transmuted into a thought or a sensation (psychological factor), provided, of course, that what is heard is understood.
- 3. For phonetics the most important is the physiological factor, the articulation of the speech-sounds. In speaking the physical (acoustic) factor is in the same relation to that as effect to cause; and as we can infer from the effect the effective factors, it will be necessary to pay attention to the tone too, although

necessary to pay attention to the tone too, although this is always something secondary from a phone-

tical point of view. A knowledge of physics is not required for practical phonetics; e. g. the acoustic analysis of a ch or ü would hardly help a person who is not familiar with these sounds to acquire the right pronunciation. The psychological

factors.

element can be neglected, if we deal with the formation of the sounds, but it plays an important part in the synthesis, especially in the accentuation, cf. §§ 86. 88. 106 note 1. 125.

4. A phonetical analysis has always to start from the spoken language, of which the writing gives only an extremely defective image, sufficient for one who knows the language, but quite inadequate and misleading for any one else, who would simply substitute the sounds familiar to him. Writing is in the same relation to speech as a colourless and shapeless pencil sketch of scenery would be to the coloured and plastic original of nature.

Note. If we neglect all the niceties, such as accent, quantity, glides, etc., the shortcomings of writing chiefly consist in the following facts: 1) the same letter is used for several sounds: e. g. biegen $b\tilde{v}^1j\eta$, biegt $b\bar{v}^1h^1t$, bogen $b\tilde{v}^1g\eta$, bog $b\bar{v}^1h^2$, ging $g\tilde{v}^2v$, Genie $\tilde{z}\tilde{e}^1n\tilde{v}^1$; 2) several letters indicate the same sound, e. g. viel $f\tilde{v}^1l$, fiel $f\tilde{v}^1l$, Philosophie $f\tilde{v}^2lo^2z\tilde{\sigma}^1f\tilde{v}$; 3) several letters are used for a simple sound, e. g. schon $\tilde{s}\tilde{\sigma}^1n$, Vieh $f\tilde{v}^1$; 4) sounds are not expressed in writing at all, e. g. Kind $hh\tilde{v}^2\eta t$; 5) letters are written, where no sound is pronounced, e. g. nahe $n\tilde{a}^2\sigma^1$, banden $b\tilde{a}^2nd\eta$.

5. In the spoken language the object of investigation is only the sentence, not the word, and still less the sound. The sentence is to be divided into stress groups or breath groups (Sprechtakte, Sprachtakte), cf. § 121; these into syllables, and these into sounds (Laute). The spoken sentence der Hund verfolgt die geschlagene Katze consists from a phonetical point of view of the following stress groups: der | Hund verfolgt die gelschlagene | Katze: accordingly, in speaking, a notional analysis of the sentence into words does not take From a phonetical standpoint the grammatical conception "word" is no real quantity, but only an abstraction; of course, by this is not meant that words cannot sometimes form stress groups, e. g. der | Knabe | wollte | heute | kómmen. But phonetically we must not speak of words or beginning or end of words (Aulaut and Auslaut), but of stress groups or beginning or end of stress groups. If, however, in this book mention is made of words, and the description commences with the sounds, we must always remember that this is only a concession to practical convenience, and by no means corresponds to a scientific description of phonetics, which ought to begin with the sentence and gradually descend to the simplest elements, the sounds.

A text-book of practical phonetics of New High German has not to describe the sounds of German dialects or of any particular dialect, but the sounds and phone-New High German tical phenomena of the standard New High Gerliterary man (N. H. G.) literary language (neuhochlanguage. deutsche [nhd.] Schriftsprache), which, although consisting of Middle German (M. G., mitteldeutsch, md.) and Upper German (U. G. oberdeutsch, obd.), elements, can nowhere be fixed in a geographical sense, because N. H. G. means the language, more or less free from dialectical peculiarities, of the educated classes of Germany, Austria, Switzerland and the Baltic provinces, whilst the countrypeople and the lower classes of the population in the towns speak dialects peculiar to them.

Note. The German dialects are divided into Low German (L. G., niederdeutsch, nd.), Middle German, and Upper German; Middle and Upper German together are also ealled High German (H. G., hochdeutsch, hd.). Low German is spoken in the North German lowlands; Upper German in the mountain districts of the South, namely Alsace, Baden, Würtemberg, Bavaria, Austria, and Switzerland. Between the Low German and Upper German territories is situated the Middle German district, i. e. the provinces on both sides of the middle Rhine (roughly speaking from Düsseldorf to Mannheim) and the Main, together with Thuringia, Saxony, and Silesia.

7. In spite of the fact, that the literary language stands above the dialects, it is more or less exposed to the influence of the dialects in the different districts. Only on the Stage do we find the tendency to throw off all that Stages of all districts, as the wandering actors, originating from different provinces, not only have to speak in the district now of this dialect, now of that, but are also obliged to make themselves understood even at the same place to a larger audience, which consists of the representatives of the most different dialects. Prac-

tical phonetics have therefore to use as standard such a pronunciation as has developed itself on the stage, and vet not that pronunciation which is applied in the pathetic, highly classical drama, but the pronunciation of the elegant drama (Konversationsstück) which for the representation of the circumstances and conditions of the modern life of the educated classes uses the unaffected language of conversation, free from dialectical peculiarities. If we disregard all those phonetical features which aim only at the effect to be produced in the distance and at the ensemble, this pronunciation is essentially identical with that of the educated classes of Berlin. As the capital of the empire, as the centre of "Beamtendeutsch", i. e. the style and pronunciation, used by German officials, who like the actors, have often to change their domiciles, and as one of the intellectual centres of Germany, this city exercises a powerful influence on the culture of even reluctant districts, and, although situated in a Low German territory, is not without effect on the High German language. To the theatres of Berlin it is to a certain extent due, that on all the leading stages of Germany and Austria the principle was unanimously accepted that the High German forms of the words of the N. H. G. literary language should be pronounced with Low German speech-sounds.

"Speaking generally, I would call him the best speaker who most effectually baffles all efforts to discover from what town or district he comes" (Victor).

Note. This definition must, of course, not be understood to imply that we should attribute the best German to a person who e.g. at one moment uses a Holstein pronunciation, at a second a Silesian, at a third a Bavarian, for in such a case we miss the uniformity essential to the standard pronunciation.

II. The organs of speech and their functions.

8. The parts of the human body which are active in speaking are: the lungs, the windpipe, the throat, the eavity of the mouth with the tongue, the teeth of speech organic basis.

Organs of speech organic basis.

The position in which these organs are in quiet and regular breathing, wherewith no speaking can take place, is called the position of indifference (Indifferenzlage). position can also be termed organic basis (Artikulationsbasis). because it forms the natural foundation for the different articulations of the apparatus of speech. With the German organic basis the tongue is not so much lowered, retracted, and flattened as with the English organic basis; nor is in the former ease the tongue hollowed in front. Whilst with the English the lips remain fairly inactive and are only slightly rounded, the Germans have an inclination to round them considerably and to pout them. On these fundamental differences between the German and the English organic bases chiefly depend the differences between the German and the English sounds, especially vowels; cf. §§ 23 note 2. 37 note 2. 40 note, 43 note, 63 note 2, 67 note.

- 9. The foundation of speech is the breath which is expelled by the lungs and, through the windpipe (Luftröhre, trachea), enters the throat. On the force or Lungs: force intensity with which the lungs expel the breath of expiration. depends in the syllable the stronger or weaker accentuation, stress (cf. §§ 87. 89), and in the single sound the difference between fortis and lenis (cf. § 53).
- 10. The breath can undergo the first interception and therefore modification in the larynx (Kehlkopf).

 Larynx:
 Fig. I-V.

cricoidea (Ringknorpel) which has the shape of a seal-ring and rests on the trachea, with its wider part at the back. cart. cric. is the support of the cartilago thyreoidea (Adam's apple, Schildknorpel) and is at the same time partly surrounded by it. For the eart, thyr, consists of two plates, having the form of shields, which join in front at about a right angle, but at the back open wide, in order to be able to receive the wider part of the eart. cric. Across the eavity, formed in this way, are stretched two elastic cushions of muscles, the vocal chords (chordae vocales, ligamenta glottidis vera, Stimmlippen, Kehlkopflippen; the usual expression Stimmbänder gives an erroneous idea of them, as they are comparable not to a pair of membranes, but to a pair of cushions suitable for compression). In front they are firmly inserted thyr., but at in the angle of the cart. the back they coalesce with two small cartilages, the cartilagines arytaenoideae (Gieszkannenknorpel, Stellknorpel). have the form of three-sided pyramids and rest wide part of the cart, crie.; they can rotate on axes and be separated from each other, and are dingly able to give different positions to the vocal chords, and with them, of course, also to the space between the vocal chords, the glottis (glottis vera, Stimmritze). real vocal chords are the spurious ones or ventricular bands (ligamenta glottidis spuria, falsche Stimmbänder, Taschenbänder) which are not used in speaking and form only a protection for the real vocal chords. Between the real and the spurious vocal chords the larynx is widened into small cavities, one on each side, the laryngeal ventricles (ventriculi Morgagni), in consequence of which the real vocal chords find a free space for their vibrations and are kept Inbricated by the mucus, emptied from the laryngeal ventricles. Above the eart, thyr, and behind the root of the tongue is a valve, the epiglottis (Kehldeckel), which has no function in speaking, but only serves to shut the larynx in swallowing.

11. The principal positions of the glottis are the following:

Position of the vocal chords; all Fig. VI.

¹⁾ The glottis can be wide open and have an almond-shaped form, as in breathing.

²⁾ It can be less open and thereby form an iso-

sceles triangle with a vertex-angle of about 25%, as in pronouncing a voiceless (stimmlos) sound (cf. §§ 16, 1. 49), e. g. s in Engl. so or Germ. das.

- 3) The glottis, forming an isosceles triangle with a vertexangle of about 10° , is narrowed to such a degree that the expired air produces a rubbing noise at the edges of the vocal chords, as with h (cf. § 34).
- 4) The vocal chords can slightly touch each other, without forming a complete closure, so that the breath can escape only by making them vibrate; thereby the glottis is with great rapidity alternately opened by the pressure of the air and shut again on account of the elasticity of the vocal chords; there is thus produced a voiced (stimmhaft) sound (cf. § 16, 1. 49), e. g. z in Engl. zeal or in Germ. so. The tone which is the result of the vibration of the vocal chords is called voice (Stimmton).
- 5) The vocal chords can be firmly closed as in forming the glottal stop (§ 28). Herewith no production of a sound takes place, until the glottis is violently forced open by the breath.
- 6) The front part of the glottis (glottis vocalis) can be closed, but the back part which is situated between the eartilagines arytaenoideae (glottis respiratoria) can be open and form an equilateral triangle, as in whispering voiced sounds. (Whispered voiceless sounds are formed in the second position of the glottis.)
 - Note. We can easily convince ourselves as to the presence of voice in a sound by the trembling of the cartilago thyrcoidea perceptible when we put a finger on it, or by the humming and ringing, heard if we shut the entrances of the ears. These two characteristics are not to be found in a voiceless sound. To denote the absence of voice, we put a dot below, e. g. s; the presence of voice remains undenoted, e. g. z.
- 12. Above the larynx is a cavity, called pharynx (Rachenhöhle), which on the other hand is in communication with the oral cavity (Mundhöhle) and the nasal cavity (Nasenhöhle). The roof of the mouth consists of the following parts: upon the upper teeth follow the alveoli which form a little fleshy convexity.

These pass into the concave osseous hard palate (palatum durum, harter Gaumen) which stretches backwards about as wide as the row of the teeth. Then follows the soft palate (palatum molle, velum, weicher Gaumen, Gaumensegel) which tapers in a pendulous extremity, the uvula (Zäpfchen).

For phonetical purposes we divide the roof of the mouth into:

- 1) a front section, the alveolar or supradental region;
- 2) an intermediate section, the prepalatal region, i. e. the hard palate;
- 3) a back section, consisting of the mediopalatal or front velar region (the front part of the velum), the post-palatal or back velar region (the back part of the velum), and the uvular region.
 - Note. The term "palatal" with the meaning of "prepalatal" ought to be avoided, as "palatal" can also be referred to the soft palate, the velum. Also the term "alveoli", although in general use, is wrong, as it denotes the sockets of the teeth in anatomical terminology, whilst the phoneticians use it for the convex rim above the upper front teeth only; but the expression may be retained for want of anything better.
- pressed against the back wall of the pharynx, so that the Functions of velum and avula; the nasal cavity is shut and the air must escape through the mouth only, as is the ease with all the oral, i. c. non nasal, sounds(e. g. cf. Fig. XI, XIV, XV, XVIII).
- 2) The velum and uvula can hang down loose between the wall of the pharynx and the back of the tongue, so that the breath escapes both through the mouth and through the nose, as is the case in the position of indifference and in the pronunciation of the French nasalised vowels, as bon $b\bar{\varrho}^2$, chance $\xi\bar{\varrho}^2 s \bar{\vartheta}^1$, fin $f\bar{\varrho}^2$; [provided that nowhere in the mouth an occlusion (cf. § 59) takes place (cf. Fig. I, XVIII). If on the contrary an occlusion in the mouth is formed, then, of course, with this position of the velum, the breath must escape through the nose only, as in the pronunciation of our usual nasals, e. g. man, Menge $m\hat{e}^2n\hat{\sigma}^1$; cf. § 44 (Fig. XI, XIV, XV)]. The nasal cavity itself is not capable of any modification.

Lastly, the uvula can be put into trilling motion by the breath, and thereby is produced the burred r (cf. §§ 26. 3. 40. Fig. VIII).

- 14. The tongue is a compact mass of muscles which fills un the whole bottom of the oral cavity. We can divide the tongue into the front part, the middle part, the back part The tongue. and the root; we have besides to distinguish between the edge (Zungensaum) and the upper surface of the tongue (Zungenrücken). Articulations in which the front edge is active are called coronal, e.g. in t, d; those in which the side edges play a part are called lateral, e.g. in l; articulations which are made by the upper surface of the tongue are termed dorsal. e. g. in g, k. At the root of the tongue, opposite the uvula, is a slight hollow, foramen caecum (blindes Loch), which serves as a drumskin for the trilling uvula in forming the uvular r (cf. § 41. Fig. I, VIII). The tongue is so amply supplied with muscles that it is capable of the most manifold and complicated movements, the details of which can best be described in connection with the single sounds. The principal movements of the tongue or of individual parts of it in different degrees and different combinations are: raising - lowering; pushing forward — retracting; forming a cavity, as in § (Fig. XIII); making the tip trill, as in the alveolar r (cf. § 40).
- The lips, as far as they are concerned in forming 15. a sound, can either be closed, as with m, or show openings of different shapes: 1) in drawing back the cor-The lips; Fig. VII. ners of the mouth, the lips can form a slit, as with i in ihn; 2) the lips can show an oval rounding, as with u in du; the lips, when rounded, can at the same time be projected or pouted, as is mostly the case with the German u; 3) the lips remain passive whilst they are opened by lowering the lower jaw, as with a in aber. Between these three prineipal forms we have still intermediate forms; the result of a combination of the i and a positions is the e position of the lips; the result of a combination of the u and a positions is the o position.
- In articulating any sound, vowel or consonant, we have always to ask the following questions: 1) whether the glottis is open or whether the vocal chords touch each other and vibrate, i.e. whether we have

Voiced - voiceless; oral sonant

to do with a voiceless or voiced sound (cf. § 11, 2, 4); 2) whether the nasal cavity is closed by the velum (oral sounds) or not (nasal sounds) (cf. § 13); 3) whether the organs of the mouth somewhere in the median line form an obstacle (occlusion, narrowing, or trilling) to the breath, or whether the cavity of the mouth in its whole length from the pharynx to the lips is open in its median line; in the former case we have a consonant, in the latter a vowel or sonant.

Note 1. This obstacle, characteristic of a consonant, can be situated in the larynx itself under certain conditions; in such a case the question under 1 is no longer to be taken into account, as the sounds of this sort occurring in standard German are always voiceless (cf. §§ 11, 3, 5, 28, 34).

Note 2. Sometimes a consonant can have the function of a sonant or vowel, e. g. Handel, Händen pronounced as $h\dot{a}^2ndl$, $h\dot{e}^2ndn$ (compare Engl. idle, hidden, cf. § 55); and vice versa a vowel can be treated as a consonant, e. g. Union, Familie, pronounced as $\dot{z}\dot{u}^in\dot{l}^2\dot{b}^in$, $fa^2m\dot{l}^il\dot{l}^2\dot{v}^i$, with Engl. y, not with Germ. j or i (cf. Engl. familiar, union). We indicate the vocalic function of a consonant by a small circle under it, and the consonantal function of a vowel or sonant by a semicircle.

III. Consonantism.

17. For the sake of convenience I anticipate the **Table** of the 31 German Consonants together with the list of the phonetical symbols and the key-words for the different spellings; the explanations are given in \$\frac{\text{Consonantal symbols and key-words.}}{\text{key-words.}}\$

	Mode of interception				
	oral				nasal
	occlusive	fricative	trill	lateral	
laryngeal		<u>,</u>	r r		
a mediopalatal	g k	$g h^2$ $f h^1$			ા છ
prepalatal alveolar labiodental	$\frac{d}{p^2}$	2.2 8.38 20 f.		H	n \dot{m} \dot{n}
[≘] bilabial	b' p*	Þ			m' m^1

Combined consonants { aspirates: kh, th, $p^{1}h$. affricates: st, st, st, $p^{2}f$.

- 1) ? voiceless laryngeal oeclusive: Unart $2\hat{a}^2n\hat{a}^2rt$, unexpressed in writing.
- 2) h voiceless laryngeal fricative: Hund, Oheim; unexpressed in kh (no 6), th (no 14), ph (no 28).
- 3) r voiced uvular trill: rauh; Rhein; irren; Katarrh (only Greek words).

r the same sound in sonantal function: Bruder $br\dot{u}^1dr$.

4) r voiceless uvular trill; trau trv202; irrt :i2rt.

(only Low German words); Intrigue $\partial^2 n t r i^1 g \partial^1$ (only French words); Ghetto (only Italian words).

6) k voiceless mediopalatal occlusive: Kram; backe; Quelle; flugs; Examen (x = ks); sechs; flaggt (only Low German words); Clique $k!l^2k^{-1}$, Acquisition, Accusativ, Akkusativ (only Romance words).

kh voiceless mediopalatal aspirate: kund khu2nt; local

 $l\dot{\sigma}^1\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\bar{a}}^2l;$ Charwoche $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{a}^2rw\dot{\sigma}^2\dot{h}^2\partial^1$.

7) g voiced mediopalatal fricative: bogen.

(8) h^2 voiceless mediopalatal fricative: ach; Bacchus (only Greek and Latin words); bog; *Brahma, *Schah a^2h^2 (only Persian and Indian words).

9) n voiced mediopalatal nasal: sang za²n; Ingo zí²ngở;

Magnet $m^1a^2nn\dot{e}^1t$.

10) voiceless mediopalatal nasal; sank za2nk.

11) j voiced prepalatal fricative: ja; biegen; loyal, Champagner $\check{s}a^2\check{m}^1p^1h\check{a}^2nj_{\tilde{s}}r$, Bataille $ba^2th\check{a}^2lj_{\tilde{s}^1}$ (only foreign words).

 $(5.12) h^1$ voiceless prepalatal fricative: ich; biegt; Mexico (only Spanish words); Detail $de^2thd^2lh^1$ (only French words).

(13) d voiced alveolar occlusive: drei; Widder (only Low German words).

14) t voiceless alveolar occlusive: treu; Rad; Stadt; Thron; Ritter.

th voiceless alveolar aspirate; tot $th\bar{o}^1t$; Thema $th\hat{e}^1m\dot{a}^2$.

ts voiceless alveolar affricate: zehn; Cigarre; Rätsel; Bads; Katze; Skizze; Nation $na^2ts\dot{k}^2\dot{\delta}^1n$ (only Romance words); *Czar (only Slavie words).

tš voiceless alveolar affricate: Kutsche; Chcck (only English words); *Cicerone (only Italian words); *Czechen (only Slavie words).

 \sim 15) z voiced alveolar fricative: lese; Gaze $g\dot{a}^2z\partial^1$ (only foreign words).

16) ž voiced alveolar fricative: Journal, genieren, Sergeant se²ržá²nţ (only Romance words).

17) ș voiceless alveolar fricative: las; reiszen; Wasser; Annonce, Façon, Bronze (only foreign words). ș as second part of the affricate tṣ (nº 14).

s the voiceless alveolar fricative in a sonantal function: is t's $2i^2sts$.

18) s voiceless alveolar fricative: schon; stark: Chef

(only French words); Shawl (only English words).

š as second part of the affricate tš (nº 14).

š in sonantal function: hsch hš.

19) l voiced alveolar lateral: lang; schalle.

l the same sound in sonantal function: Handel há2ndl; Ischl: l2sl.

∠20) į voiceless alveolar lateral: klang ķļa²n; sehallt

 $\dot{s}a^2 lt$.

- ~ 21) n voiced alveolar nasal: Bunde; rennen; Compagnon $kh\dot{o}^2m^1p^1a^2nj\dot{\phi}^2$ (only French words, but *Compagnie = $kh\dot{o}^2m^1p^1a^2n\dot{t}^2$).
 - n the same sound as sonant: binden bi^2ndn .
 - 22) n voiceless alveolar nasal: bunt bu2nt; rennt re3nt.
 - 23) p² voiceless labiodental occlusive: Apfel.

 p^2f voiceless labiodental affricate: Apfel.

- 24) w voiced labiodental fricative: wahr; Sklave.
- 25) f voiceless labiodental fricative: fahr; Schiffe; viel; Philosoph; Löwehen. f as second part of the affricate p^2f (no. 23).

26) m^2 voiceless labiodental nasal: Dampf $da^2m^2p^2f$;

fünf fü²m²f.

- 27) b voiced bilabial occlusive: Blatt; Krabbe (only Low German words).
- $(28)^{\circ} p^1$ voiceless bilabial occlusive: platt; Knappe; Weib.

 p^1h voiceless bilabial aspirate: Pack p^1ha^2k .

- 29) b voiceless bilabial fricative: zwar $tsb\bar{a}^2r$; Qual $kb\bar{a}^2l$.
 - 30) m voiced bilabial nasal: März; schwimme.

m the same sound as sonant: Atem : $\hat{\alpha}^2 t m$.

- 31) m^1 voiceless bilabial nasal: Schmerz $\xi m^1 e^2 r t s$; schwimmt $\xi b i^2 m^1 t$.
- 18. As to the obstacles, which play a part in forming a consonant whether oral or nasal —, we have to distinguish between place of interception (Hemmungsstelle) and mode of interception (Hemmungsart). By place of interception is meant the place,

where the breath finds an obstacle and undergoes an alteration, i. e. where the consonant is formed; the term mode of interception denotes the nature of the deviations from the organic basis of the organs of speech, whilst the breath is passing them, i. e. how the consonant is formed.

For the formation of the consonants of standard N. H. G. the following seven places of interception are to be taken into account:

- 19. I. The laryngeal place of interception. The vocal chords themselves produce two consonants: h, as in Hen, Oheim (cf. §§ 11, 3, 34. Fig. VI 3); and the glottal stop or glottal check (Kehlkopfverschluszlaut) (cf. §§ 11, 5, 28. Fig. VI 5), which remains unmarked in writing, and for which we use the phonetical symbol z: Abart $z\hat{a}^zp^1z\hat{a}^zp^t$.
- 20. II. The uvular place of interception. At this the trilling uvula beats against the foramen caecum near the root of the tongue and so the r (as in rauh, Rhein) and r (as in traue) is formed, as it is pronounced in the larger North German towns and also in the elegant dramas on the stage; Fig. VIII.
 - Note 1. For the pronunciation in a pathetic highly classical drama is absolutely prescribed an r, which is formed by the tip of the tongue at the alveoli, and which is spoken besides by the countrypeople of North Germany and by all the South Germans and Austrians. The usular r was substituted for the alveolar in Germany only about 150 years ago, but it is steadily gaining ground and is to be considered the r of the educated classes of North Germany; on that account I set it up as the standard German r, in accordance with the principle, laid down in § 7, without thereby condemning the alveolar r.
 - Note 2. The English r has an alveolar articulation, with the exception of the Northumbrian burred r, which is uvular.
- the effective factors are on the one hand the front part of the soft palate, on the other hand the back part of the tongue; the sounds of this group have accordingly a dorsal articulation (Fig. IX). They

are: g as in Gold, k as in kund, g as in Wagen $w\dot{a}^2gv$, h^2 as in wachen $w\dot{a}^2h^2v$, v as in sang za^2v , v as in sank za^2vh .

Note 1. g written as g, occurs only after one of the back vowels \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{o} , \mathbf{u} , or $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{u}$ $(\nu^2\varrho^2)$ if it is followed by an \mathbf{i} (as in Tragik $tr\dot{a}^2gi^2k$, logisch $l\dot{o}^1gi^2\check{s}$); or by an δ^1 (an unaccentuated \mathbf{e} sound) as in Woge $w\dot{o}^1g\delta^1$, Auge $\dot{v}^2\varrho^2g\delta^1$; or by an \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{m} , \mathbf{n} , belonging to the stem of the word, if they have arisen from an original δr , δl , δm , δn , δn , e. g. Wagner, $w\dot{a}^2gn^2r$, magrer $m\dot{a}gr^2r$, Vogler $f\dot{o}^1glr$, kugle $k\dot{h}\dot{u}^1gl\delta^1$, Kugel $k\dot{h}\dot{u}gl$, Wagen $w\dot{a}^2gn$, mager $m\dot{a}^2gr$, klugem $k\dot{l}\dot{u}^1gm$.

Note 2. /2, written as ch, g and h, appears in German words only after a, o, u, au in the middle or at the end of a word: sprach $\xi p^1 r \bar{a}^2 h^2$, Sprache $\xi p r \dot{a}^2 h^2 a^1$, Loch lo^2h^2 , Loche $lo^2h^2\partial^1$, Buch $b\bar{u}^1h^2$, buchen bu^1h^2n , Rauch, raucht, rauchen $r\dot{p}^2 q^2 h^2 n$ (but not in Frauchen $f_r \dot{p}^2 q^2 h^1 n$, for the suffix -chen always contains h^1 ; the spelling g for this sound appears only at the end of a word or a syllable: Tag thath, Tags thathe (but Tage, Tages Tagen thá $^2g\partial^1$, thá $^2g\partial^1s$, thá $^2g\eta$), bog b \bar{b}^1h^2 , Flugs $(= \text{Fluges}) f[\bar{u}^1 h^2 s, \text{ fragte } fr \dot{u}^2 h^2 t \partial^1, \text{ fraglich } fr \dot{u}^2 h^2 l \dot{u}^2 h^1;$ also in some foreign words, like Katalog khà 2ta 2lo 1/2, Humbug hú2mbù2h2; h appears only in some Persian and Indian words, like *Schah $\dot{s}a^2h^2$, *Brahma $br\dot{a}^2h^2m^1\dot{a}^2$. In foreign expressions the sound h^2 is found also at the beginning of a word before a, o, u, au or a consonant: *Charkow $h^2\dot{a}^2 r k o^2 f$, *Chaldäa $h^2 a^2 l d \dot{e}^2 \dot{a}^2$, *Chaos $h^2 \dot{a}^2 o^1 s$, *Charon $h^2\dot{a}^2r\dot{o}^1n$, *ehthonisch $h^2t\dot{o}^1ni^2\dot{s}$.

22. IV. The prepalatal place of interception is made by the articulation of the middle part of the body of the tongue towards the hard palate; the sounds are accordingly dorsal (Fig. X). There are only two sounds in this class: j (as in jung ju^2v) written by

j and g, and h^1 (as in spreche $\xi p^1 r e^2 h^1 \sigma^1$) written by ch and g.

Note 1. The sound j is expressed in writing by g:
a) between a preceding front vowel (as e; i; \ddot{a} ; \ddot{o} ; \ddot{u} ; ei[$\delta^2 e^2$]; eu, $\ddot{a}u$ [$\delta^2 \ddot{u}^2$]) on the one hand and a following i, δ^1 , r, l, m, n, belonging to the stem of the word (if the last four have arisen from an original $\delta^1 r$, $\delta^1 l$, $\delta^1 m$, $\delta^1 n$) on

the other hand; e. g. lege $l\dot{e}^{i}j\partial^{i}$, läge $l\dot{e}^{i}j\partial^{i}$, lüge $l\ddot{u}^{i}j\partial^{i}$, lüge $l\ddot{u}^{i}j\partial^{i}$, lüge $l\ddot{u}^{i}j\partial^{i}$, benge $b\dot{o}^{2}\ddot{u}^{2}j\partial^{i}$, Segen $z\dot{e}^{i}j\eta$, segnen $z\dot{e}^{i}j\eta\eta$, feigem $f\dot{o}^{2}e^{2}j\eta\eta$, äugle $i\dot{o}^{2}\ddot{u}^{2}jl\partial^{i}$, hüglig $h\ddot{u}^{i}jli^{2}h^{i}$, zweitägig $t\dot{s}\dot{b}\dot{o}^{2}e^{2}th\dot{e}^{2}ji^{2}h^{i}$. The j sound also appears if a preceding i is dropped, as in ew'ger $i\dot{e}^{i}wj\eta$, Kön'ge $i\dot{e}^{i}h\dot{e}^{j}i^{2}h^{i}$.

b) if it is preceded by \mathbf{r} or \mathbf{l} and followed by one of the sounds mentioned under (a); e. g. Berge $b\dot{e}^2rj\dot{e}^1$, borge $b\dot{e}^2rj\dot{e}^1$, Borger $b\dot{e}^2rj\dot{r}$, folge $f\dot{e}^2lj\dot{e}^1$, folgen $f\dot{e}^2lj\dot{e}$, Bur-

gen bú²rjn.

Note 2. h^1 appears a) in the middle or at the end of a word after the front vowels: sprich $p^1r^2h^1$, spreche $p^1r^2h^1$, spräche $p^1r^2h^1$, spräch

b) in the middle and at the end of a word after \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{e} , \mathbf{g} , maneh(e) $m\dot{a}^2n\dot{h}^1(\sigma^1)$, Kirche $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{l}^2r\dot{h}^1\sigma^1$, solch(e) $z\dot{\sigma}^2l\dot{h}^1(\sigma^1)$, Monarch(en) $m\dot{\sigma}^1n\dot{a}^2r\dot{h}^1(\dot{p})$, Berg $be^2r\dot{h}^1$, Borgt $bo^2r\dot{h}^1$, folgt $fo^2l\dot{h}^1\dot{t}$, Balg $ba^2l\dot{h}^1$, Burg

 $bu^2rh^1;$

c) at the beginning of foreign words and Old German proper nouns before front vowels: China $h^1 i^1 n \dot{a}^2$, Chemie $h^1 \dot{e}^1 m \dot{r}^1$, Chirurg $h^1 \dot{r}^1 r \dot{u}^2 r h^1$, Cherson $h^1 e^2 r \dot{s} \dot{o}^2 n$, Childerich $h^1 i^2 l d o^1 r \dot{r}^2 h^1$, Cherusker $h^1 e^2 r \dot{u}^2 s k r$.

Note 3. k and g before front vowels, as in kenne, Kind, künde, geben, gibt, gönnen, and w after front vowels, as in sänge, sing are in standard German, in spite of the front vowels, not prepalatal, but mediopalatal, although in these cases the articulation of k, g and w is removed forward as far as the boundary of the hard palate.

Note 4. For the sounds of the prepalatal and the mediopalatal groups is often employed the name "guttural", a term to be avoided as misleading, for these sounds are formed in the palatal region of the mouth, by no means in

the "guttur" (= throat).

23. V. The alveolar or supradental place of interception is formed by the articulation of the front part of the tongue towards the alveoli of the upper teeth. The sounds of this class are partly coronal, partly lateral, partly dorsal (Fig. XI—XIII). Coronal are d (as in drei), t (as in treu), t (as in neu), t (as in bunt t (as in drei), t (as in Reise t (as in Land t (as in was t (as in Journal t (as in schon t (as in was t (as in Journal t (as in schon t (as in the part of the term "dental" is too yague and not quite

Note 1. The term "dental" is too vague and not quite applicable to the German sounds, as they are formed above the teeth, which in this case do not play any part at all.

Note 2. The place of articulation of the English alveolar sounds lies slightly higher than that of the German ones. The English d, t and n have a dorsal, l a dorsal-lateral articulation.

24. VI. The labiodental place of interception is produced by the underlip and the upper teeth (Fig. XIV). This class is represented in German by: p^2 (as in Apfel $:\dot{a}^2p^2f_v^2$), w (as in wahr $w\bar{a}^2r$), f (as in place of interception.

Note 1. p and m, which are usually formed at the labiolabial place of interception, are, however, pronounced as labiodentals before a following f, m also before a following labiodental p^2 (as in Dampf $da^2m^2p^2f$, empfehlen $e^{im^2p^2f\hat{e}^{il}l\eta}$, Triumf $tri^2\hat{u}^2m^2f$, Nymphe $n\hat{u}^2m^2f\hat{e}^{il}$); m^2 is expressed in writing either by m, as in the examples above, or by n, as in funf $f\hat{u}^2m^2f$, künftig $kh\hat{u}^2m^2ft^i^2h^i$, sanft za^2m^2ft , Senf ze^2m^2f . bf in compounds represents p^2f , as in Abfall $e^{im^2p^2f\hat{u}^2l}$, Erbfeind $e^{im^2p^2f\hat{u}^2}e^{im^2p^2f\hat{u}^2}$.

Note 2. More exactly these sounds ought to be called bilabiodental, for the upper lip also plays a slight part in forming them, as it prevents the breath from escaping between the upper teeth, which seldom stand so close to each other that they could form an air-tight bar.

25. VII. At the bilabial or labiolabial place of interception both lips are active (Fig. XV). Here we have the sounds b (as in Bein), p^1 (as in Pein), \bar{p} (as in zwar $t \not = \bar{p} \bar{a}^2 r$), m (as in mal $m \bar{a}^2 l$), m^1 (as in place of sehmal $\not= m^1 \bar{a}^2 l$).

Note 1. The bilabial b is written as w and u and occurs

only after the sounds \dot{s} , t, s, $t\dot{s}$, $t\dot{s}$: schwand $\dot{s}ba^2nt$ (but wand wa^2nt), *Twing $t\dot{b}i^2n$, *Swine(münde) $\dot{s}b\dot{t}^1no^1$; *Suewen $\dot{s}b\dot{e}^1wn$, zwar $t\dot{s}b\bar{a}^2r$ (but war $w\bar{a}^2r$), Qual $\dot{k}b\bar{a}^2l$ but Wahl $w\bar{a}^2l$), Quadrat $\dot{k}ba^2dr\dot{a}^2t$, *Biskuit $bi^2s\dot{k}b\dot{t}^1t$.

- Note 2. b must not be identified with the English u, written as w in war or as u in queen, which is a sound formed by raising the back part of the tongue, whilst with the German b the tongue remains absolutely passive.
- 26. The modes of interception can be divided into five groups from the following points of view. If we form a sound:
- The five modes of interception.

 1) Provided the nasal cavity is closed, the breath meets a complete occlusion in the mouth (in one case in the throat itself); ultimately the occlusion is more or less violently opened (occlusive sounds, Verschluszlaute).
- 2) Provided the nasal cavity is closed, in the median line of the mouth (in one case in the throat itself) a very narrow passage is formed by two organs opposite to each other; the breath has to escape through this narrow passage and, in doing so, produces a rubbing noise (fricative sounds, Reibelaute).
- 3) If the nasal eavity is closed, the breath produces a trilling of a part of the organs of the mouth in the median line; thereby is produced alternately an occlusion and an opening, and the breath escapes in quick succession in single small puffs (trills, Zitterlaute).
- 4) Provided the nasal eavity is closed, in the median line of the mouth the breath meets an occlusion, which will not be opened, the breath having to escape through an opening on one or on both sides of the mouth (lateral sounds, Laterallaute).
- 5) Provided the nasal cavity is open, in the mouth the breath meets a complete occlusion, which will not be opened, the breath having to escape through the nasal cavity (nasal sounds, Nasale).
 - Note. Although simultaneously with the trills and lateral sounds a rubbing noise can occasionally appear viz., if the opening is made so slight that the breath rubs against its edges we are not justified in considering the trills and

lateral sounds to be a subdivision of the fricative sounds, for trills and lateral sounds are formed as a rule without any noise, as pure "sonorous" sounds. The rubbing noise can appear with them as a secondary moment, but it is not essential for their constitution. On the other hand, if we wish to keep the physiological production as principle of classification for the consonants too, we must not call the sounds of the 3, 4, 5 groups "liquid" or "sonorous" sounds, i. e. sounds which are characterised like the vowels by a pure, noiseless, musical tone (Klang), for the expressions "liquid", "sonorous" refer only to their acoustic effect, not to their physiological genesis; besides these sounds are not only voiced: they occur also as voiceless, e. g. alt $2a^2lt$, meint mo^2g^2nt , Engl. felt fe^2lt , meant me^2nt .

27. I. In the oral occlusive sounds (explodents, explosive sounds, stops, Momentanlaute, Explosivlaute, Verschluszlaute) we have to distinguish between

three consecutive acts: 1) making the occlusion;

Occlusive sounds in general.

2) persisting in occlusion i. e. a longer or shorter perfectly soundless and noiseless pause; 3) opening the occlusion or explosion. It is in the nature of these sounds that they last only a moment (hence Momentanlaute) and can not be continued, as distinguished from the consonants of the four other modes of interception. They can be lengthened only by lengthening the soundless and noiseless pause.

28. The only occlusive sound which is formed in the throat itself is the larvngeal occlusive sound (glottal stop. glottal catch, check glottid, Kehlkopfver-Larvngeal schluszlaut), cf. § 11.5; in pronouncing this sound occlusive sound; Fig. V15. the glottis is firmly closed and is then forced open by the breath. The sound thus produced is a very weak one, but can be perceived distinctly, if we whisper; in its extreme form it is known as a cough. This sound is not expressed in writing, but as phonetical symbol we use ?. A word beginning with a vowel, and a syllable beginning with an accentuated vowel are preceded by this consonant: Abart $2\dot{a}^2p^{12}\dot{a}^2rt$, eine alte Uhr $2\dot{a}^2e^2n\partial^1$ $2\dot{a}^2lt\partial^1$ $2\dot{a}^1r$, ererbt A few stressed monosyllabie words which end in a short vowel, as the doubting ja ja^2 ; and the impatient na na^2 ? and da da^2 ?, show this sound also after the vowel.

the cross nein $n \partial^2 e^2 n$ and na $n \partial^2 e^2 n$ even the consonant n is preceded by this sound.

- Note 1. ? which corresponds to the Hebrew aleph, and which appears in some languages, as in Danish and Lithuanian, also in the middle of a syllable or a sound (cf. Dan. maler $ma^2 \cdot l \partial^1 r =$ (he) paints, but $m\dot{a}^2 l \partial^1 r =$ painter), is missing altogether in standard English; but it exists in Scotch, Sheffield, and Lincoln pronunciation, and has existed in Anglo-Saxon, as can be proved from the treatment of the vowels at the beginning of a word in the Old Teutonic poetry, where to all appearance any vowel can alliterate with any other vowel, but in reality the alliteration is formed by the preceding glottal stop, e. g. Béowulf 33: ísi $_{\bar{3}}$ ond útfús | æðelin $_{\bar{3}}$ es fær.
- Note 2. 1) Unaccentuated vowels in the middle of a word or a stressgroup are not preceded by a glottal stop, e. g. Ehe $\dot{z}\dot{e}^1\partial^1$, sähen and säen $z\dot{e}^2\partial^1 n$, will ich $wi^2li^2h^1$, will es $wi^2l\partial^4s$, especially if an ∂^4 is dropped, as in würd' ich $w\ddot{u}^2rdi^2h^1$, Freud' und Leid $f_ir\dot{\phi}^2\ddot{u}^2du^2nt|b\dot{\phi}^2e^2t$. 2) No glottal stop is spoken in the following stressed adverbial compounds with her-, hin-, vor-, dar-, war-, wor-, wieder, e. g. herein $h = h^2 r \delta^2 e^2 n$, hinaus $h \ell^2 n \delta^2 \rho^2 s$, voran $f\hat{b}^1r\hat{a}^2n$, daran $d\hat{a}^2r\hat{a}^2n$, warum $w\hat{a}^2r\hat{u}^2m$, woran $w\hat{b}^1r\hat{a}^2n$, wiederum $w^{\frac{1}{2}}drr\dot{u}^{2}m$; nor in the following compounds and pseudo-compounds: *einander $: \partial^2 g^2 n d^2 n dy$, *selbander $z\dot{e}^2lb\acute{a}^2ndr$, *allein $\dot{e}\dot{a}l\acute{\phi}^2e^2n$, *wohlan $w\dot{\phi}^1l\acute{a}^2n$, *vollenden $f \partial^2 l \dot{e}^2 n dn$, *erinnern $\partial^2 r \dot{e}^2 n r n$, *erobern $\partial^2 r \dot{e}^2 h r n$, *O bacht $\dot{z}\dot{\sigma}^1b\dot{\alpha}^2h^2t$, *Hebamme $h\dot{e}^1b\dot{\alpha}^2m\dot{\sigma}^1$, Einöde $\dot{z}\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n\ddot{\bar{\sigma}}^1d\dot{\sigma}^1$. 3) In compounds borrowed from foreign languages, as e. g. Interesse $i^2ntrré^2s\partial^1$, or other foreign words, as Oase ?o¹d²zə¹, Theater te¹d²tr, Occan ?o¹tse²d²n, Ruine $rit^1i^1n\partial^1$, Michaelis $mi^2h^1a^2\dot{e}^1li^2s$, usually no glottal stop is spoken, although the following vowel is stressed.

29. With the mediopalatal occlusive sounds g and k the occlusion is formed by the front part of the soft palate Mediopalatal and the back part of the body of the tongue;

occlusive cf. § 21.

sounds; Fig. 1X. Note 1. The letter g represents the occlusive sound only 1) at the beginning of a word and at the beginning of an accentuated syllable: gegangen $ga^1ga^2n\eta$, Religion

 $r\dot{e}^2l\dot{t}^1g\dot{t}^{\prime}n$, regieren $re^2g\dot{t}^1r\eta$, $\ddot{\Lambda}$ gypten $\dot{e}^2g\dot{u}^2p^1t\eta$, Dragoner $dr\dot{a}^2g\dot{\sigma}^1n\gamma$, Agent $\dot{e}\dot{a}^2g\dot{e}^2\eta t$, Riga $r\dot{t}^1g\dot{a}^2$, Rigi $r\dot{t}^1g\dot{a}^1$; 2) before consonants in Greek and Latin words, as in Segment $ze^2gm\dot{e}^2\eta t$, Dogma $d\dot{\sigma}^2gm\dot{a}^2$, Pilgrim $p^1h\dot{t}^2lgr\dot{t}^2m$, Kongress $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\sigma}^2ngr\dot{e}^2\dot{s}$; 3) in words with gg borrowed from Low German, as Dogge $d\dot{\sigma}^2g\dot{\sigma}^1$, Flagge $f[\dot{d}^2g\dot{\sigma}^1]$, Schmuggel $\dot{s}m^1\dot{u}^2gl$, Roggen $r\dot{\sigma}^2g\eta$; 4) in foreign words with gu, e.g. Guirlande $g\dot{t}^1rl\dot{u}^2nd\dot{\sigma}^2$, intriguieren $\dot{x}^2\eta tr\dot{t}^1g\dot{t}^1r\eta$, Drogue $dr\dot{\sigma}^1g\dot{\sigma}^1$.

In all the other eases the letter ${\bf g}$ denotes the prepalatal and mediopalatal fricative sounds j or g or h^1 or h^2 ; cf. §§ 21 note 1, 2. 22 note 1, 2. 35. 36. 51, 1, 2. Exceptions are a) the group -gig, in which, if the ${\bf i}$ is dropped, the first ${\bf g}$ is pronounced as g, the second as j, e. ${\bf g}$. bo ${\bf g}$ ' ${\bf g}$ es $b\delta^1 g j \delta^1 s$, zweitä ${\bf g}$ ' ${\bf g}$ es $ts b\delta^2 e^2 t h \dot{e}^2 g j \delta^1 s$ (but bo ${\bf g}$ ig es $b\delta^1 g i^2 j \delta^1 s$, zweitä ${\bf g}$ ' ${\bf g}$ es $ts b\delta^2 e^2 t h \dot{e}^2 j i^2 j \delta^1 s$); b) ${\bf g}$ represents the voiceless occlusive sound k in *Augsburg $t\delta^2 e^2 k s b \dot{u}^2 t h^4$, *flugs $t k s \delta^2 e^2 k s \delta \delta^2 e^2 k \delta \delta^2 e^2$

Note 2. In certain cases k is expressed in writing by \mathbf{ch} , namely a) in some foreign words such as *Charakter ka^2rd^2ktr , *Christ kri^2st , *Christus kri^2stu^2s , *Chronik $kr\delta^1ni^2k$, *Chrom $kr\delta^1m$, *Cholera $kh\delta^1le^2r\mathring{a}^2$, *Chor $kh\delta^1r$, *Choral $kh\delta^1r\mathring{a}^2l$,*Melancholie $m\acute{e}^2la^2\nu k\delta^1l\mathring{a}^1$, *Marchese $m\grave{a}^2rkh\acute{e}^1z\eth^1$; b) in some German words as *Charfreitag $kh\grave{a}^2rfr\acute{b}^2e^2th\grave{a}^2h^2$, *Charwoche $kh\check{a}^2rw\grave{o}^2h^2\eth^1$, *Chemnitz $kh\acute{e}^2mni^2ts$, *Chlodwig $kl\acute{o}^1dwi^2h^1$, and especially in the group \mathbf{chs} , if no vowel is dropped between \mathbf{ch} and \mathbf{s} , e.g. We chsel $w\acute{e}^1ksl$, Ochse $s\acute{o}ks\eth^1$, Sachsen $s\acute{o}^2ksn$, Fuchs $s\acute{o}^2ks$, sechs $s\acute{o}^2ks$, Dachs $s\acute{o}^2ks$ (badger, dachshund, but des Dachs $s\acute{o}^2ks$, of the roof), wächst $s\acute{o}^2ks$, $s\acute{o}^2ks$

The letter \mathbf{x} always contains a k; e.g. Examen e^2k \$ \hat{a}^2m \$ η \$, Alexander e^2k \$ \hat{a}^2le^2k \$ \hat{a}^2m \$ η \$, Alexander e^2k \$ \hat{a}^2le^2k \$ \hat{a}^2k \$

30. With the alveolar occlusive sounds d and t the occlusion is made by the alveoli of the upper teeth and the front edge of the tongue, cf. § 23. d and t are not sounded at the end of French words like Fond $f\bar{o}^2$, Dessert $de^2s\tilde{e}^2r$, Tricot $tr\hat{t}^1kh\hat{o}^1$.

Labiodental occlusive sound; Fig. XIV.

- 31. With the labiodental occlusive sound p^2 the underlip forms an occlusion with the upper teeth. This sound does not occur in English, cf. § 24.
- 32. With the bilabial occlusive sounds b and p^1 both lips form the occlusion, cf. § 25. p^1 is not sounded at the end of French words like Coup $kh\bar{u}^1$, Corps $kh\bar{v}^1$.
- II. The oral fricative sounds (open consonants, 33. spirants, Reibelaute) are produced, when two organs, opposite to each other, do not make a complete occlu-Fricatives sion, but only approach each other, so that the in general; affricates. breath is pressed through a narrow passage and thus produces a rubbing noise. The friction is here in the same relation to the narrow passage, as with the occlusive sounds the explosion to the occlusion. In common with the sounds of the 3rd, 4th, and 5th modes of interception, the fricative sounds possess the property of being continuable at will, as long as there is breath in the lungs (hence Dauer-The combination of an occlusive sound with a homorganic fricative sound is called affricate. In modern German there exist two affricates: p^2f and ts (mostly written z and c; cf. § 37 note 4); besides ts (cf. § 37 note 6), which occurs only in borrowed words.
- 34. The laryugeal fricative (glottal fricative, Hauchlaut) h is formed in the throat itself by the approaching of the vocal chords to each other in such a de-Laryngeal iricative; gree, that the breath rubs against their edges. aspirates; Fig. V13 without, however, making them vibrate; cf. § 11, 3. It seems, however, a little questionable, whether by articulating the German h the glottis is actually more narrowed than in articulating any other voiceless consonant; an increased force of expiration could in itself be sufficient to produce the rubbing noise; cf. \S 11, 2. That in articulating an h the force of expiration is actually increased, is shown by fact that the German h is only pronounced if the follow-

ing vowel has the stress, i. e. if a more intensive expiration takes place, if the vocal chords are struck by a more energetic breath: halten $h\hat{\alpha}^2 ltn$, anhalten $\hat{\alpha}^2 nh\hat{\alpha}^2 ltn$, Oheim $\hat{\alpha}^0 h\hat{\alpha}^2 e^2m$, Ranheit $\hat{\alpha}^0 p\hat{\alpha}^2 e^2t$, Hoheit $\hat{\beta}^0 h\hat{\alpha}^2 e^2t$ (but ruhe $\hat{\alpha}^0 h\hat{\alpha}^1 e^2t$, sche $\hat{\alpha}^0 h\hat{\alpha}^1 e^2t$). Under the same condition also after \hat{p}^1 , \hat{t} , \hat{k} an \hat{p} is pronounced, no matter whether it is written or not: kund $\hat{k}h\hat{u}^2nt$, local $\hat{a}^0 h\hat{a}^2 l$, Eitelkeit $\hat{\alpha}^0 e^2t \hat{k}h\hat{\alpha}^2 e^2t$, Chemnitz $\hat{k}h\hat{e}^2mn\hat{r}^2t$, Tricot $\hat{t}r\hat{r}^1 h\hat{\alpha}^0$; Teil $\hat{t}h\hat{\alpha}^2 e^2l$. Thema $\hat{t}h\hat{e}^1m\hat{\alpha}^2$, Lot(h)ar $\hat{b}^0 t\hat{h}\hat{\alpha}^2 r$, Italien $\hat{r}^0 t\hat{r}h\hat{\alpha}^2 l\hat{a}^2 n$, Antipathie $\hat{\alpha}^0 t\hat{r}\hat{r}\hat{r}\hat{r}$ Bert(h)ald $\hat{b}^0 t\hat{r}\hat{r}\hat{r}\hat{r}$ Pein $\hat{p}^1h\hat{\sigma}^2 e^2n$, Papier $\hat{p}^1\hat{\sigma}^2p^1h\hat{r}^1r$. But before an unstressed vowel h is not sounded, e. g. Walt(h)er $\hat{w}^2 t\hat{r}\hat{t}\hat{r}$, Zither $\hat{t}\hat{s}^0 t\hat{r}$.

An occlusive sound, followed by an h, is called aspirate $(kh, th, p^{\dagger}h)$, and must be earefully distinguished from a fricative (like h, s, s, h or Eugl. th, h) and from an affricate (like p^2h , h, h); cf. § 33.

In a word pronounced with great excitement an h^1 or h^2 is sometimes substitued for the h of the aspirate; e.g. keiner $(kh^2\delta^2\varrho^2nr)$ war da! zum Teufel $(th^2\delta^2\varrho^2fl)!$

Note 1. **h** is not pronounced in foreign words with **rh**, **rrh**, and **gh**, as Rhenma, Rhein, Katarrh, Ghetto; the aspiration of k, t, p^1 is suppressed, if these consonants in the same syllable are preceded or followed by another consonant: kahl $kh\bar{a}^2l$, Chor $kh\bar{a}^1r$ but Qual $k\bar{b}\bar{a}^2l$, Skizze $ski^2ts\bar{a}^1$, Chlor $kl\bar{a}^1r$; teile $th\bar{a}^2e^2l\bar{a}^1$, but steile $st\bar{a}^2e^2l\bar{a}^1$, Zeile $ts\bar{a}^2e^2l\bar{a}^1$; Tier $th\bar{a}^1r$, but Stier $st\bar{a}^1r$, Zier $ts\bar{a}^1r$, tren $tr\bar{a}^2\bar{a}^2$; Ton $th\bar{a}^1\bar{a}^2$, but Thron $tr\bar{a}^1\bar{a}^2$; Paare $p^1h\bar{a}^2r\bar{a}^1$, but spare $sp^1\bar{a}^2r\bar{a}^1$, prasseln $p^1r\bar{a}^2s_\ell^2u$.

Note 2. An aspiration of k, t, p^1 at the end of a word takes place occasionally, viz. if an especially strong emphasis is laid on the word, i. e. if we have to do with a very energetic expiration, in this case preceding the consonant: In seinen | Armen das | Kind war | tót thơ th.

Note 3. Those who do not admit that h has the character of a fricative might take it as a voiceless vowel, but this view is not often in agreement with the actual pronunciation of h in N. H. G.: cf. § 58 note.

35. With the mediopalatal fricatives g and h^2 the narrow passage is made by the back h^2 the part h^2 the narrow passage is made by the back h^2 the narrow passage is made by the back.

part of the body of the tongue and the front part of the soft palate.

Note 1. These sounds do not occur in English.

Note 2. g never appears at the beginning of a word, but only in the middle or at the end, after the back vowels, and is always expressed in writing by the letter g, ef. § 21 note 1.

36. With the **prepalatal fricatives** j and h^1 the middle part of the body of the tongue and the hard palate fricatives: Fig. X. are form the narrow passage, ef. § 22 note 1, 2.

Note. h^1 does not occur in modern English; and Engl. y in young is not identical with Germ. j in jung, because y seems to me to be formed without the narrow passage, essential to fricatives, and is accordingly to be qualified as i^2 , an i with the function of a consonant, as in Union $2i^1ni^2\delta^1n$, Familie $f_i\hat{a}^2mi^1li^2\delta^1$; cf. Engl. union $i^2\hat{u}^2u^2ni^2\delta^2n$.

37. With the alveolar fricatives z and s, ž and š the Alveolar frieatives:

Fig. XII, XIII. tongue and the alveoli of the upper teeth (cf. § 23).

s and z differ from s and z in the following respects: 1) the articulating part of the tongue lies further backwards with s and z than with s and z; 2) with s and z the front part of the tongue shows a comparatively large basin-shaped hollow, whilst with s and z the tongue in its median line represents a narrow groove or furrow; 3) with s and s a second basin-shaped hollow is formed by the lower surface (lower blade) of the tongue and the lower teeth, which is not the case with s and s; 4) with s and s the lips are rounded and projected (pouted), s and s have accordingly a labialised articulation, whilst with s and s the lips remain passive.

Note 1. sch is not at all a compound sound but represents a unit (\dot{s} cf. kreischen $\dot{k}_{1}r\dot{\delta}^{2}e^{2}\dot{s}_{1}n$ to shrick) and must be carefully distinguished from s-ch ($\dot{s}h^{1}$ in Kreis-chen $\dot{k}_{1}r\dot{\delta}^{2}e^{2}\dot{s}h^{1}n$ little circle, or in Greek words from $\dot{s}h^{2}$, e.g. Eschatologie $\dot{s}\dot{e}^{2}\dot{s}h^{2}a^{2}th\ddot{\delta}^{2}l\dot{\delta}^{1}g\dot{t}^{1}$. Therefore \dot{s} must not be pronounced with two articulations following upon each other, as by the Westphalians, $\dot{s}h^{2}\ddot{\delta}^{1}n$, $\dot{s}h^{2}\ddot{a}^{2}f$ instead of $\dot{s}\ddot{\delta}^{1}n$, $\dot{s}\ddot{a}^{2}f$. Equally untenable is the view that in pronouncing \dot{s} the tongue has simultaneously the position necessary for \dot{s} and that necessary for \dot{h} , because the combination of these

two positions would never produce as result the two basin-shaped hollows essential for ξ and \dot{z} .

Note 2. The Engl. § and z (as in fashion, occasion) differ from the German ones especially by the fact that they are pronounced without any rounding and projection of the lips, in accordance with the English organic basis; cf. § 8.

Note 3. The phonetical symbol z is not to be confused with the German letter \mathbf{z} (= t+s). For the sound z we use in writing throughout the letter \mathbf{s} (e. g. Salz $za^2|ts$, Felsen $f\dot{e}^2lz\eta$, lese $l\dot{e}^1z\vartheta^1$) — except in foreign words, where the letter \mathbf{z} appears for it; e. g. Hazard $ha^2z\dot{a}^2rt$, Zuidersee $z\dot{\sigma}^2\ddot{u}^2drz\dot{e}^1$.

Note 4. The voiceless s forms the second component of the affricate ts, e. g. Rätsel $r\hat{e}^2tsl$, Bads ba^2ts ; also written with \mathbf{z} , as Zahn $ts\bar{a}^2n$, Zeus $tso^2\tilde{u}^2s$, Horaz $h\bar{o}^1r\tilde{a}ts$, Polizei $ph\bar{o}^1li^2ts\bar{o}^2\varrho^2$, *Grazie $gr\hat{a}^2tsl^2\sigma^1$; with \mathbf{c} , e. g. Ceylon $ts\bar{o}^2\varrho^2lo^2n$, Cäsur $ts\bar{e}^2z\hat{u}^1r$, Docent $d\bar{o}^1ts\bar{e}^2nt$, Officier $c\bar{o}^2fi^1tsl^2r$, Cigarre $tsl^2g\hat{a}^2r\sigma^1$, Accent $ca^2kts\bar{e}^2nt$, *Celle $ts\bar{e}^2l\sigma^1$, Scene $sts\bar{e}^1n\sigma^1$, Scepter $sts\bar{e}^2p^1t_lr$; with $t\mathbf{z}$, as in Katze $kh\hat{u}^2tsl^2s\sigma^1$; with $t\mathbf{z}$, as in Skizze $skl^2ts\sigma^1$; with $t\mathbf{z}$, as in *Czar $ts\bar{a}^2r$; with t before consonantal, unsyllabic l^2 , as in Nation $n\bar{a}^2tsl^2\sigma^1n$, Actie $ca^2ktsl^2\sigma^1$, Patient $ca^2tsl^2sl^2\sigma^2nt$ (but Partie ca^2rtl^2n , Aristokratie $ca^2rl^2sl^2rl^2n$).

s at the end of French words is sounded only in plur. and gen. sg.: das Corps $kh\bar{o}^1r$, Palais $p^1\dot{a}^2l\dot{e}^2$, but des, die $kh\bar{o}^1r$, $p^1\dot{a}^2l\dot{e}^2$ s

Note 5. \dot{z} occurs only in foreign words, chiefly borrowed from French, and is expressed in writing by \dot{j} (*Journal $\dot{z}u^2rn\mathring{a}^2l$, *Jalousie $\dot{z}\mathring{a}^2l\mathring{u}^1z\mathring{t}^1$); or by \dot{g} , as in *Genie $\dot{z}\mathring{e}^1n\mathring{t}^1$ (but Genius $g\mathring{e}^1n\mathring{t}^2u^2s$, genial $g\mathring{e}^1n\mathring{t}^2\mathring{a}^2l$, because borrowed directly from Latin), *genieren $\dot{z}\mathring{e}^1n\mathring{t}^1r\mathring{v}$, Page $p^1\mathring{h}\mathring{a}^2\mathring{z}\mathring{a}^1$, *Loge $l\mathring{o}^1\mathring{z}\mathring{o}^1$, *Orange $\mathring{c}\mathring{o}^1r\mathring{q}^2\mathring{z}\mathring{o}^1$, Courage $\mathring{k}\mathring{u}^1r\mathring{a}^2\mathring{z}\mathring{o}^1$, *Giro $\dot{z}\mathring{i}^1\mathring{o}^1$, *Regie $r\mathring{e}^1\mathring{z}\mathring{i}^1$ (but regieren $r\mathring{e}^1g\mathring{i}^1r\mathring{v}$), *Giraffe $\dot{z}\mathring{i}^1r\mathring{a}^2f\mathring{o}^1$; or by ge as in *Sergeant $se^2r\mathring{z}\mathring{a}^2n\mathring{t}$.

Note 6. § is also found in sp and st at the beginning of the root syllable of German words, e. g. spielt $\S p^1 \bar{t}^1 l t$, Gespenst $g \partial^1 \S p^1 \ell^2 n \mathfrak{s} t$ (but Knospe $k n \partial^2 \mathfrak{s} p^1 \partial^1$, spiels $\mathfrak{s} p^1 \bar{t}^1 l \mathfrak{s} t$), stiehlst $\S t \bar{t}^1 l \mathfrak{s} t$, Stein $\S t \partial^2 \varrho^2 n$, Gestein $g \partial^1 \S t \partial^2 \varrho^2 n$;

and in some foreign words which are quite naturalised, as in *Spasz $\S p^1\bar{a}^2 \S$, *speculieren $\S p^1\hat{e}^2 ku^2 li^1 r\eta$, *Spicgel $\S p^1i^1jl$, *spazieren $\S p^1\bar{a}^2 t \S i^1 r\eta$, *Spanien $\S p^1\bar{a}^2 ni^2 \vartheta i^1 n$, *Spiritus $\S p^1i^1ri^2tu^2 \S$, *Spion $\S p^1i^1\delta^1 n$, *Spediteur $\S p^1\hat{e}^1 di^2 t h\hat{b}^1 r$, *Spital $\S p^1\hat{t}^1 t h\hat{a}^2 l$ (but *Hospital $h\hat{o}^2 \S p^1\hat{t}^1 t h\hat{a}^2 l$), *Spalier $\S p^1\hat{a}^2 li^1 r$, *speziell $\S p^1\hat{e}^1 t \S i^2\hat{e}^2 l$, *Spektakel $\S p^1e^2 k t h\hat{a}^2 k l$, *Spezerei $\S p^1\hat{e}^1 t \S i^2 e^2 l$, *Spinat $\S p^1\hat{i}^1 n\hat{a}^2 t$, *Spirale $\S p^1\hat{i}^1 r\hat{a}^2 l\partial^1$; *Standarte $\S t\hat{a}^2 nd\hat{a}^2 r t\partial^1$, *Strapaze $\S tr\hat{a}^2 p^1 h\hat{a}^2 t \S \partial^1$, *Stuck(atur), $\S t\hat{a}^2 k (a^2 t h\hat{a}^1 r)$, *Student $\S t\hat{a}^1 - de^2 \eta t$, *studieren $\S t\hat{a}^1 di^1 r\eta$, *Studium $\S t\hat{a}^1 di^2 u^2 m$, *Strophe $\S tr\hat{o}^1 f\partial^1$, *Stil $\S t\hat{t}^1 l$, *Station $\S t\hat{a}^2 t \S i^2 \hat{o}^1 n$, *Stock holm $\S t\hat{o}^2 k h\hat{o}^2 lm$. sch is pronounced like \S also in Greek and Latin words which have become quite German, as in *Schema $\S e^1 m\hat{a}^2$, *Seholar $\S \partial^1 l\hat{a}^2 r$.

š forms the second part of the affricate $t\check{s}$, which appears only in foreign words like *Cicerone $t\check{s}\check{\tau}^1 t\check{s}\delta^1 r\check{o}^1 n\delta^1$, *Guttapercha $g\grave{u}^2 ta^2p^1h\acute{e}^2rt\check{s}\grave{a}^2$, *Czechen $t\check{s}\acute{e}^2h^1v$, *Check $t\check{s}\acute{e}^2k$, and in some Slavic words, as Peitsche $p^1h\acute{o}^2e^2t\check{s}\delta^1$, Kutsche $kh\acute{u}^2t\check{s}\delta^1$ and their derivatives.

Labiodental fricatives f and w the narrow passage is formed between the underlip and the upper teeth; ef. § 24.

Note. In *Bowle $b\hat{\sigma}^i l \sigma^i$, borrowed from English, and in Low German, originally Slavie names ending in ow the w is not pronounced, as in Bühlow $b\hat{\pi}^i l \hat{\sigma}^i$, Lützow $l\hat{u}^2 t s \hat{\sigma}^i$, Gutzkow $g\hat{u}^2 t s k \hat{\sigma}^i$; whilst in such names in ow which are still Slavie w is pronounced as f, as in Charkow $h^2 d^2 r k \sigma^2 f$, Romanow $r\hat{\sigma}^i m \hat{a}^2 n \sigma^2 f$.

Bilabial fricative; Fig. XV. b, which has its narrow passage between both lips, cf. § 25 note 1, 2.

40. III. In forming the oral trills (rolled consonants, Zitterlaute) the breath causes to trill some easily flexible part of the mouth, such as e. g. the tip of the toningeneral. gue or the uvula; this trilling organ touches another part, opposite to it, and transfers the trilling to it in much the same manner as the moving drum stick produces a movement of the drum-skin. The tongue touches the alveoli and makes them trill; the uvula acts upon the foramen caecum. Accordingly, an occlusion takes place, and as on

account of its elasticity the trilling tip of the tongue or the trilling nvula rebounds into its original position, the occlusion is opened immediately afterwards. The peculiar, rolling character of the trills is due to the fact that the breath is periodically interrupted, and occlusion and opening alternate with each other several times. Although in pronouncing an r the same acts of occluding and opening are repeated several times, the sound produces nevertheless an unbroken, unified effect on account of the great rapidity with which the different acts follow upon each other. At least two strokes of the tongue or the uvula are required, in order to produce the impression of a rolled r. As to the relation of the German alveolar r to the uvular r cf. § 20 note 1.

- Note. There are several differences between the English and the German alveolar r's. In accordance with the English organic basis (cf. § 8) the tongue is more retracted, the front part of the tongue has a more bulky shape, and in consequence of it the English r is not rolled, i. e. only one stroke with the tongue takes place.
- 41. In pronouncing the uvular trills r and r the back part of the tongue is raised, and in the median line of the tongue there is formed a groove or furrow, in which uvular trills: the uvula unhindered trills against the foramen Fig. VIII. caecum. If on account of careless articulation the forming of such a median furrow is omitted, a rubbing noise is produced and instead of an r an h^2 or g sound appears.
 - Note 1. r is not pronounced at the end of French words: e. g. Bankier $b\hat{a}^2 n k i^2 \hat{e}^1$, Diner $d\hat{t}^1 n \hat{e}^1$, Souper $z\hat{a}^1 p^1 k \hat{e}^1$; but *Barbier $ba^2 rb\hat{t}^1 r$, *Passagier $p^1 k \hat{a}^2 s a^2 \hat{z} \hat{t}^1 r$, *Kavalier $k k \hat{a}^2 w a^2 l \hat{t}^1 r$.
- 42. IV. With the oral lateral sounds (side consonants, Laterallaute) the tongue forms an occlusion in the median line of the mouth, but at the same time Lateral sounds the middle part of the tongue is removed from in general, the back molar teeth, so that on each side of the mouth an opening for the breath is formed (hence l is also called a divided consonant); very common, however, are the unilateral or asymmetric l sounds, in which an opening is made only on one side of the month whilst the other side is occluded by the tongue.

Alveolar-lateral sounds. 43. The German l and l are alveolar and form their median occlusion exactly as the alveolar d or t.

Note. The English l, likewise alveolar, differs from the German in the following respects: 1) on account of a hollowing in the forepart of the tongue, in accordance with the English organic basis (\S 8), it has a hollower sound; 2) it has a dorsal articulation, and the back-part of the tongue is raised, whilst the German l is coronal and the bulk of the tongue remains as far as possible passive.

- 44. V. The nasal consonants have a complete occlusion in the mouth, but at the same time the velum with the uvula is lowered quite as it is in ordinary breathing without speaking. The mouth accordingly forms a caccal sack (cul-de-sac) and serves only as a resonance-chamber for the breath, which has to escape through the nose. The difference of the nasal sounds is due to the different shapes of this resonance-chamber, which are produced by the different manners of occluding the mouth. The oral occlusions for the nasal sounds are made in the same ways and at the same places as for the corresponding oral occlusive sounds.
- 45. Accordingly, for the mediopalatal nasals n and mediopalatal nasals n and the oral occlusion is formed by the front part of the soft palate and the back part of the body of the tongue.

Note. In writing we use for this sound a common n only, if a k sound follows: $\sinh e zi^2 n k \partial_1$, $\sinh z a^2 n k$, inquirieren $i^2 n k \partial_1^2 i r i^1 r \eta$, Konkurs $k h \partial_2^2 n k h \partial_2^2 r k$; and an n also in foreign words and Old German names, if a g follows, as in Evangelium $i \partial_2 u g \partial_1^2 i \partial_2 u^2 m$, Ungarn $i \partial_2 u g \partial_2^2 r n$, Ganges $G \partial_2 u g \partial_1 s$, Linguist $li^2 u g u \partial_2^2 i \partial_1 s$, fingieren $f \partial_2 u g \partial_1^2 r \eta$, Ingo $i \partial_2 u g \partial_1^2 \eta$, Engadin $i \partial_2 u g \partial_2^2 \partial_1^2 n$; in words borrowed from Latin g before n is pronounced as u, as in Magnet $u \partial_1 u \partial_1 u \partial_1 u \partial_2 u \partial_1 u \partial_2 u \partial_1 u \partial_1 u \partial_2 u \partial_1 u \partial_1$

46. With the alveolar masals n and n the occlusion is formed by the front edge of the tongue and the alveoli of the upper teeth.

Alveolar nasals; Fig. Xl.

- 47. With the labiodental nasal m^2 the upper teeth and the underlip form the oral occlusion; ef. Labiodental § 24. Nymphe, $n\tilde{u}^2m^2f\partial^4$; cf. Engl. nymph also Fig. XIV. with m^2 .
- 48. With the **labiolabial nasals** m and m and m and m both lips form the occlusion; cf. § 25.
- - 50. Voiced occlusive sounds become voiceless:
- 1) At the end of a word and at the end of the first part of a compound: Brigg bri^2k , Flaggschiff $f!d^2k \dot{s}i^2f$; Voiced and Magd $m\bar{a}^2h^2t$, Jagdanzug $j\dot{a}^2h^2t \dot{r}\dot{a}^2n t \dot{s}\dot{u}^2h^2$, voiceless occlusive Abendrot $\dot{a}\dot{b}n t \dot{r}\dot{b}^1t$, Abendessen $\dot{a}\dot{a}\dot{b}n t \dot{e}^2s n$; Schreibart $\dot{s}\dot{r}\dot{b}^2e^2p^1\dot{a}^2rt$, leblos $l\dot{e}^1p^1\dot{b}^1s$, abrupt $\dot{a}\dot{a}^2p^1r\dot{u}^2p^1t$, *subaltern $z\dot{u}^2p^1\dot{a}^2lt\dot{e}^2rn$ (but not in foreign words as e.g. *sublim $zu^2bl\dot{t}^1m$, where the composition is not clearly understood).
 - Note 1. If after gg, d or b the dropping of an ∂^1 is indicated by an apostrophe, these sounds remain voiced Flagg' $f[a^2g]$, ich red' $r\bar{e}^1d$, Knab' $kn\bar{a}^2b$. They remain also voiced at the end of the first parts of the following compounds: *Knoblauch $kn\partial^2bl\dot{\nu}^2\varrho^2h^2$, *Obacht $i\dot{\sigma}^1b\dot{\alpha}^2h^2t$, *Hebamme $h\dot{e}^1b\dot{\alpha}^2m\partial^1$, *selbander $z\dot{e}^2lb\dot{\alpha}^2ndr$, *Friedrich $fr\dot{t}^1dr\dot{t}^2h^1$, *Ludwig $l\dot{t}^1dw\dot{t}^2h^1$, *Hedwig $h\dot{e}^1dw\dot{t}^2h^1$.
- 2) In the middle of words before suffixes beginning with consonants and before voiceless consonants which do not belong to a suffix, e. g. *flugs $f!u^2k$, *Augsburg $:\dot{p}^2\varrho^2k$, $*b\dot{u}^2rh^1$, flaggst $f!a^2k$, flaggt $f!a^2k$, *bugsieren $b\dot{u}^1k$, $i^1r\eta$; abends $:\dot{a}^2b\eta t$, tugendhaft $t\dot{u}^1g\eta th\dot{a}^2f$, Mädchen $m\dot{e}^2th^1\eta$, Findling $fi^1\eta tli^2\eta$, kindlich $khi^2\eta tli^2h^1$; Lobs lo^2p , lobt $l\bar{o}^1p^1t$, lobst $l\bar{o}^1p^1$, löblich $l\dot{o}^1p^1li^2h^1$,

Knäbchen $kn\dot{e}^2p^1h^1\eta$, Abt a^2p^1t , Labsal $l\dot{a}^2p^1s\dot{a}^2l$, Liebling $l\dot{i}^1p^1l\dot{i}^2\eta$.

- Note 2. d and b remain voiced, if before \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{m} , belonging to the stem of the word an ∂^1 is dropped: edler $2\dot{e}^1dl_F$, and rer $2\dot{a}^2ndr_F$, Redner $r\dot{e}^1dn_F$, widmen $w\dot{v}^1dm_F$; übles $2\dot{\bar{u}}^1bl\partial^1s$, übrig $2\dot{\bar{u}}^1br\dot{v}^2h^1$, ebnes $2\dot{e}bn\partial^1s$. In the same way before the ending -nung: Ordnung $2\dot{o}^2rdn\dot{u}^2n$, Ebnung $2\dot{e}^1bn\dot{u}^2n$. The use with the suffix -lein wavers: Kindlein $kh\dot{v}^2ndl\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n$ and $kh\dot{v}^2ndl\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n$, Knäblein $kn\dot{e}^2b-l\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n$ and $kh\dot{v}^2p^2l\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n$. Before the suffixes -lich, -ling the voiceless sounds always appear; cf. § 82, 1. The voiced sound appears besides in some isolated words: *adlich (\leftarrow adellich) $2\dot{a}^1dl\dot{v}^2h^1$, *Gelübde $g\partial^1l\dot{u}^2b^2d\partial^1$, *Liebden $l\dot{v}^1bdv$ Lastly, g in Greek and Latin words before suffixes beginning with m is voiced: Dogma $d\dot{\sigma}^2gm\dot{a}^2$, Fragment $fr\dot{a}^2gm\dot{e}^2n\dot{t}$.
 - 51. Voiced fricative sounds become voiceless:
- 1) At the end of a word or at the end of the first part of a voiced and voicedess fricatives. Lug $bog b\bar{b}^1h^2$, Zug tsu^2h^2 , Zug führer $ts\dot{u}^2h^2f\dot{u}^1rr$, Zug och se $ts\dot{u}^2h^2\dot{c}^2ks\dot{c}^1$; Weg $w\bar{c}^1h^1$. Zeug $tso^2\ddot{u}^2h^1$, Zeug haus $ts\dot{c}^2\ddot{u}^2h^1\dot{h}\dot{v}^2\dot{c}^2s$, Zeug art $ts\dot{c}^2\ddot{u}^2h^1\dot{c}\dot{a}^2rt$, Burg bu^2rh^1 , Burg aufgang $b\dot{u}^2rh^1\dot{v}^2\dot{c}^2fg\ddot{u}^2v$; Haus $hv^2\dot{c}^2s$, Haus vater $h\dot{v}^2\dot{c}^2sf\dot{a}^2tr$, Haus arzt $h\dot{v}^2\dot{c}^2s\dot{c}\dot{a}^2rt$; activ $2d^2k\dot{t}\dot{t}^1f$, brav $br\ddot{a}^2f$, Adjectif $2\dot{a}^2dje^2k\dot{t}\dot{t}^1f$, Charkow $h^2\dot{a}^2rk\dot{c}^2f$.
 - Note 1. If after g, j. \check{z} , z, w the dropping of an δ^1 is marked by an apostrophe, the voiced sound remains: therefore $\operatorname{Ang}': n^2\varrho^2g$, $\operatorname{leg}': l\bar{e}^1j$, $\operatorname{Reis}': r\delta^2\varrho^2z$, $\operatorname{Courag}': k\bar{u}^1ra^2\dot{z}$, $\operatorname{L\"ow}': l\bar{b}^1w$.
- 2) Voiced fricatives become voiceless in the middle of a word before suffixes beginning with a consonant and before voiceless consonants which do not belong to suffixes: des Flugs $f[l\bar{u}^1l]^2$ s, fragte $f[r\hat{u}^2l^2t^3]$, fraglich $f[r\hat{u}^2l^2l^2l^2]$, tragbar $t[r\hat{u}^2l^2t^3]$, Magd, Jagd, Smaragd $m\bar{a}h^2t$, ja^2h^2t , $sm^1a^2r\hat{u}^2h^2t$ (and here this pronunciation is transferred also to the plural Mägde, Jagden, Smaragde $m\hat{e}^2h^1t^3$, $j\hat{u}^2h^2t\eta$, $sm^1a^2r\hat{u}^2h^2t^3$); biegt $b\bar{v}^1h^1t$, lügst $l\bar{u}^1h^1$ st, Wegs $w\bar{e}h^1s$, folgt fo^2lh^1t , birgt bi^2rh^1t , Feigling $fo^2e^2h^1liv$, Ereignis $i^2r^2\hat{e}^2h^1n\hat{v}^2s$, regsam $i^2h^1s\hat{e}^2m$, Vögte $i^2h^1t\hat{e}^3$; löste $i^2s\hat{e}^2h^1n\hat{v}^2s$, Röslein $i^2h^2\hat{e}^2n$, Bosheit $i^2s\hat{e}^2t$, Klaus-

ner $k!b^2\varrho^2 sn_r$, Knospe $kn\delta^2 sp^1\delta^1$, Maske $m\dot{\alpha}^2 sk\delta^1$; Löwchen $l\ddot{b}f p^1 n$, Levkoje $le^2 fk\delta^2 j\delta^1$.

- Note 2. The voiced fricatives remain, if before r, 1, n, m belonging to the stem of the word an σ^1 is dropped: magrer $m\dot{a}^2grr$, kuglicht $k\dot{h}\dot{a}^1gli^2\dot{h}^1t$; segmen $z\dot{e}^1jnv$, äugle $z\dot{o}^2\ddot{u}^2j\dot{c}^1$, bettlägerig $b\dot{e}^2tl\dot{e}^2jri^2\dot{h}^1$; weisre $w\dot{o}^2e^2zr\sigma^1$, gewesnen $g\sigma^1w\dot{e}znv$, bravre $br\dot{a}^2wr\sigma^1$, naivre $n\dot{a}^2\dot{t}^1wr\sigma^1$. (Before the suffixes-lich, -lein, and -ling and the endings-ner and -ler we have the voiceless fricatives: Wagner $w\dot{a}^2h^2nr$, Lügner $l\ddot{u}^1h^1nr$, Klausner $kl\dot{o}^2o^2snr$, Vogler $f\dot{o}^1h^2lv$.) s and walso retain their voice, if in the suffix-ig the i disappears: eis ge $z\dot{o}^2e^2zj\sigma^1$, ew ge $z\dot{e}^1wj\sigma^2$; for j and g in this case cf. § 29 note 1.
 - 3_j The letter s denotes the voiced alveolar fricative z:
- a) at the beginning of a word before vowels, e. g. so $z\bar{o}^1$, Salz za^2lts ; also in foreign words borrowed from Greek and Latin, e. g. Sonant $z\bar{o}^1n\bar{a}^2nt$, Sophist $z\bar{o}^1f\hat{i}^2st$; and in a few Romanee words *Salat $z\bar{a}^2l\bar{a}^2t$, *Saison $z\bar{e}^2z\bar{o}^2$, *Salon $z\bar{a}^2l\bar{o}^2$ *Service $ze^2rw\hat{i}^1s$, *Serviette $ze^2rw\hat{i}^2e^2t\bar{o}^1$, *Solo $z\bar{o}^1l\bar{o}^1$, *Sauce $z\bar{o}^1s\bar{o}^1$, *Soubrette $z\bar{a}^1br\bar{e}^2t\bar{o}$, *Souper $z\bar{a}^1p^1h\bar{e}^1$. In the other words borrowed from the Romanee languages the voiceless s is retained, e. g. Sergeant $se^2rz\bar{a}^2nt$, Souver $s\bar{a}^1s\bar{a}^1w\bar{o}^1r\bar{e}^2$, from $s\bar{a}^2v\bar{o}^2$, $s\bar{a}^2t\bar{o}^2$, $s\bar{$

b) in the middle of a word before vowels, if a vowel or \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{m} precedes, as e.g. lese $l\dot{e}^1z\dot{\sigma}^1$, Perser $p^1\dot{h}\dot{e}^2rz_f$, Person $p^1e^2rz\dot{\sigma}^2n$, Wesen $w\dot{e}^2z_n$, Verse $f\dot{e}^2rz\dot{\sigma}^1$, Felsen $f\dot{e}^2lz_n$, Universität $\dot{z}\dot{u}^2n\dot{t}^2w\ddot{e}^2rz\dot{t}^2t\dot{h}\dot{e}^2t$, heilsam $\dot{h}\dot{\sigma}^2e^2lz\dot{u}^2m$, Hansa $\dot{h}\dot{d}^2nz\dot{a}^2$, emsig $\dot{z}\dot{e}^2mz\dot{t}^2\dot{h}^1$, Version $we^2rz\dot{t}^2\dot{\sigma}^1n$, Konvulsion $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\sigma}^2nwu^2lz\dot{t}^2\dot{\sigma}^1n$, Raison $r\dot{e}^2z^2\ddot{\sigma}^2$.

Apart from the cases mentioned under 1 and 2, s expresses the voiceless sound: a) if a consonant, except \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{l} , \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{m} , precedes: Erbse $?\vec{e}^2rps\vartheta^1$, Lotse $l\mathring{\sigma}^1ts\vartheta^1$, we cheeln $w\mathring{e}^2ksln$, Absicht $?\mathring{a}^2p^1s\mathring{r}^2ll^1t$, seltsam $z\mathring{e}^2lts\mathring{a}^2m$, folgsam $f\mathring{\sigma}^2ll^1s\mathring{a}^2m$, sittsam $z\mathring{r}^2ts\mathring{a}^2m$, Psalm $p^1s\mathring{a}^2lm$, psychisch $p^1s\mathring{u}^1ll^1\mathring{r}^2\mathring{s}$; b) at the beginning of a foreign word before a consonant: Scene $sts\mathring{e}^1n\vartheta^1$, Sklave $skl\mathring{a}^2w\vartheta^1$, Smaragd $sm^1a^2r\mathring{a}^2ll^2t$, Swine $s\mathring{v}^1n\vartheta^1$.

4) Apart from the cases mentioned under 1 and 2, the letter v indicates the voiceless labiodental fricative f in all the genuine German words: viel $f\bar{\imath}^{i}l$, Frevel $fr\dot{\epsilon}^{i}f_{i}l$, Venn

 fe^2n , Vläme $f!\dot{e}^2m\partial^1$, Verden $f\dot{e}^1rd\eta$, Vischer $fi^2\check{s}_i$, Voss $fo^2\check{s}$, Hannover $\dot{h}\dot{a}^2n\dot{o}^1f_i$ (but also wich w), (Wilhelms-) haven $\dot{h}\dot{a}^2f\eta$; and in the following foreign words: *Vers $fe^2r\check{s}$, *Veilchen $f\dot{\phi}^2\dot{e}^2l\dot{h}^1\eta$, *Vogt $f\bar{o}^1\dot{h}^2t$, *Vettel $f\dot{e}^2tl$, *Larve $l\dot{a}^2rf\dot{\sigma}^1$, *Pulver $p^1\dot{h}\dot{u}^2lf_i$? (mostly too so in *Nerven $n\dot{e}^2rf\eta$, but *nervös $n\dot{e}^2rw\dot{\bar{c}}^1s$).

On the other hand the voiced fricative w is represented by \mathbf{v} in all the other borrowed words, e. g. vulgär $wu^2lg\hat{e}^2r$, privat $p^1r\dot{t}^1w\dot{a}^2t$, Sklave $skl\dot{a}^2w\partial^1$, Vocal $w\dot{\sigma}^1k\dot{h}\dot{a}^2l$, Salve $z\dot{a}^2lw\partial^1$; and in a few German names, as *Vandalen $w\dot{a}^2nd\dot{a}^2lv$, *Sievers $z\dot{t}^1w\gamma s$, *Trave $tr\dot{a}^2w\partial^1$, *Kleve $kl\dot{e}^1w\partial^1$.

- 5) The bilabial fricative b does not occur as a voiced sound in German, but is always voiceless, as it is found only after voiceless consonants, cf. § 25 note 1.
- 52. The trills, lateral and nasal sounds (with exception of m^2) are voiced, but:
- Voiced and voiceless trills, lateral and nasal sounds.

 1) if at the beginning of a syllable they are preceded by one or several voiceless consonants, they become voiceless, or at least half voiceless, so that the sound begins as a voiceless one, and ends as a voiced: tragen $tr\mathring{a}^2gn$, Schreck $\tilde{s}re^2k$, schmettre $\tilde{s}m^1\dot{e}^2trr^{3}$; klang kla^2m , Sklave $\tilde{s}kl\mathring{a}^2m^3$, schlau $\tilde{s}ln^2g^2$, lächle $l\mathring{e}^2h^1l^3$; Knecht kne^2h^1t , schnitt $\tilde{s}ni^2t$, gebackne $g^1b\mathring{a}^2kn^3$; Schmied $\tilde{s}m^1i^2t$, Smaragd $\tilde{s}m^1a^2r\mathring{a}^2h^2t$, Tmesis $tm^1\mathring{e}^1zi^2s$, atme $\tilde{s}d^2tm^3$. Cf. Engl. pride, slow with bride, glow;
- 2) if at the end of a syllable they are followed by one or several voiceless consonants (except h), they become voiceless, or at least half voiceless, so that the sound begins as a voiced one and ends as voiceless: Orte $z\delta^2rt\delta^1$, wird wi^2rt , warfen wd^2rt , wirft wi^2rt , Herzen $h\dot{e}^2rtsu$; kalte $kh\dot{a}^2lt\delta^1$. halb ha^2lp^1 , Schultz $\dot{s}u^2lts$; trank travk, trinkst tri^2vkst ; bunte $b\dot{u}^2nt\delta^1$, Land la^2nt , ganz ga^2nts , Mensehen $m\dot{e}^2n\dot{s}v$; dampfen $d\dot{a}^2m^2p^2tv$, fünf $t\dot{u}^2m^2f$, sanfte $z\dot{a}^2m^2tt\delta^1$; Amt za^2m^1t , fremd tre^2m^1t , Lumpen $l\dot{u}^2m^1p^1v$. Cf. Engl. sent, felt, lamp with send, field, lamb.

Before h the voiced quality is retained: mannhaft $m\dot{a}^2nh\dot{a}^2ft$, wahrhaft $w\dot{a}^2rh\dot{a}^2ft$.

Fortes and lenes; double consonants. 53. Sounds, which are pronounced with comparatively less force of expiration, i. e. with lower

voice, are called lenes; sounds pronounced with comparatively greater force of expiration, i. e. louder, are called fortes. In German all the voiced consonants are lenes, on the other hand the voiceless occlusive and fricative sounds (with the exception only of the bilabial voiceless b) are fortes; for the breath of expiration can of course produce a more energetic effect with the glottis open than with the glottis closed, where a part of the force is used to make the vocal chords vibrate. Only the bilabial b, the trills, lateral and nasal sounds, which are originally voiced, but lose their voice under the conditions mentioned above (§ 51, 5. 52), keep their original quality as lenes, although they have become voiceless.

The ratio of force between lenis and fortis is only a relative one: e. g. if a voiced consonant occasionally, for instance, when the speaker is excited, is pronounced with a greater expiration than usually, a voiceless consonant of the same syllable will be produced with a still greater force of expiration; accordingly with equal force of speaking the gradation between lenis and fortis is always maintained.

This can especially be observed with words, such as Flagge $f[d^2g\partial^1]$, Roggen $r\partial^2g\eta$, back(e) $bd^2k(\partial^1)$, Rocken ró²kn; Widder wí²dr, Padde p¹há²də¹, Ritter rí²tr, Ratte $r\acute{a}^2t\eth^1$; Krabbe $k_{i}r\acute{a}^2b\eth^1$, Robbe $r\acute{o}^2b\eth^1$, Knappe $k_{i}n\acute{a}^2p^1\eth^1$, Rapp (e) $r\dot{\alpha}^2 p^1(a^1)$; Schiffe $\xi i^2 f(a^1)$; pass (e) $p^1 h\dot{\alpha}^2 s(a^1)$; kom- $\mathbf{m}(\mathbf{e}) kh\delta^2 m(\delta^1)$, $\mathbf{Mann}(\mathbf{e}) m\delta^2 n(\delta^1)$; $\mathbf{all}(\mathbf{e}) : \delta^2 l\delta^1$; $\mathbf{irr}(\mathbf{e}) : \delta^2 r\delta^1$. The double consonants in modern German do not express at all a reiterated articulation of the same sound or the length of the sound, but only the force of expiration. E. g. dd in Padde $p^1hd^2d\theta^1$ and tt in Ratte $rd^2t\theta^1$, which represent only the single sounds d and t, are produced with greater force of expiration than d in Rade $r\dot{a}^2d\partial^1$ and t in rate $r\dot{a}^2t\partial^1$; i. e. dd has the function of a fortis in comparison with the lenis d, and tt is a still stronger fortis in comparison with the fortis t. In the same way ff in Schiffe si2fo1 or schafft (procures) ša2ft is a stronger fortis than the usual fortis f in schiefe $\delta i^1 f \partial^1$ or Schaft (handle) $\delta a^2 f t$. In Manne $m\dot{a}^2n\partial^1$ nn is fortis, but in mahne $m\dot{a}^2n\partial^1$ the single n is lenis; Il is fortis e. g. in schallt ša2lt (it sounds), but 1 is lenis in schalt $\delta a^2 lt$ (scolded).

Note. In South German dialects the gradation of expiration has a much greater importance than in North

Germany; for, whilst here b, g, z, etc. are distinguished from p, k, s, etc. both by the voice and the weaker expiration, South Germany, which possesses only voiceless occlusive and fricative sounds, distinguishes the corresponding sounds only by a gradation of expiration: $p^{1}o^{2}e^{2}n$ with p^{1} (or $p^{1}h$) fortis means pain, with p^{1} lenis leg; $r\dot{\sigma}^{2}e^{2}sp$ with s fortis to tear, with s lenis to travel; $p^{1}o^{1}k!\dot{\sigma}^{2}e^{2}tp$ with s fortis and s lenis is to dress, with s lenis and s fortis to accompany.

54. Although the German consonants have not all the same quantity and individually have not the same quantity in all positions, we can practically neglect the differences and

can generally qualify all the German consonants, of consonants. both lenes and fortes, as short — in contradistinction to the English consonants (cf. especially the n in English man $m\alpha^2\bar{n}$ and German man $m\alpha^2\bar{n}$). Unquestionably long consonants occur only in compounds, if the first part ends and the second part begins with the same consonant; e.g. Nottaufe $n\delta^{1}\bar{t}h\dot{\nu}^{2}o^{2}f\partial^{1}$, but Notausgang $n\dot{\sigma}^1 t \dot{r} \dot{p}^2 \phi^2 s q a^2 \theta$, Packkorb $p^1 h \dot{a}^2 \tilde{k} h \dot{\phi}^2 r p^1$ but Packort $p^1h\dot{a}^2k^2\dot{\delta}^2rt$, Halbpreusze $h\dot{a}^2l\bar{p}^1r\dot{\delta}^2\ddot{a}^2s\dot{\delta}^1$ but Halbreusze $h\dot{a}^2 l p^1 r \dot{o}^2 \ddot{u}^2 s \dot{\sigma}^1$, Tauffeier $th\dot{p}^2 o^2 f \dot{\sigma}^2 e^2 \dot{\sigma}^1 r$ but Baufeier bý2o2f22e201r, Schnellläufer šné2lò2ü2fv but Schneeläufer š $n\dot{e}^{1}l\dot{o}^{2}\ddot{u}^{2}fr$. So also if two words are contracted under one principal stress, e.g. Not tun $n\delta^1 \bar{t} h \dot{u}^1 n$ but so tun $z\delta^1 t h \dot{\bar{u}}^1 n$, Lärm machen lé2rmà2h2n but leer machen lé1rmà2h2n. An occlusive sound is lengthened by lengthening the soundless pause between the making and the opening of the occlusion; all the other sounds are lengthened by continuing the expiration, whilst the organs of speech remain in the position required for the respective consonant. But in no case is the lengthening of a consonant produced by performing the same articulation twice, in Nottaufe for instance is only one t, not two.

Note 1. Besides this purely phonetical lengthening consonants are sometimes lengthened for metrical or rhetorical reasons (e. g. ich frage nicht, wann $[wa^2\bar{n}]$ er es getan hat, sondern was $[wa^2\bar{s}]$ er getan hat; Vater! in a very emphatic exclamation sounds $\bar{f}\dot{a}^2tr$); individually, consonants are lengthened by persons who drawl their words.

Note 2. We can sometimes observe the tendency to shorten a long consonant, especially in words frequently used, e. g. Mittag $mi^2th\grave{a}^2h^2$ instead of $mi^2th\grave{a}^2h^2$, dasselbe $d\grave{a}^2s\acute{e}^2lba^1$ instead of $d\grave{a}^2s\acute{e}^2lba^1$, Wollust $w\acute{o}^2l\grave{u}^2s\acute{t}$ instead of

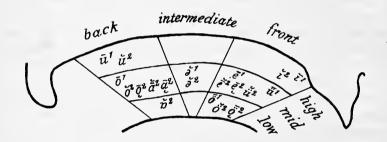
 $w \dot{\phi}^2 \bar{l} \dot{u}^2 s t$. Very common is the shortening of a long consonant, if it is preceded or followed by another consonant: a cht zi g $(a^2h^2tsi^2h^1)$ instead of $(a^2h^2tsi^2h^1)$, hast du ha^2sta^1 instead of $h\hat{a}^2 s t \hat{a}^1$. Bank kasse $b\hat{a}^2 p k h \hat{a}^2 s \delta^1$ instead of $b\hat{a}^2 p k h \hat{a}^2$. $s\partial^{1}$, Halbprisma $h\dot{a}^{2}l\rho^{1}r\dot{i}^{2}sm^{1}\dot{a}^{2}$ instead of $h\dot{a}^{2}l\bar{\rho}^{1}r\dot{i}^{2}sm^{1}\dot{a}^{2}$. Exzellenz ; e2kso1le2nts instead of ; e2kso1le2nts; Selbstzucht zé²lnstsù²h²t is very often pronounced quite like Selbstsucht $z\dot{e}^2 lpsts\dot{u}^2 h^2 t$ (by assimilation arisen out of $z\dot{e}^2 lpstz\dot{u}^2 h^2 t$).

55. Certain consonants can assume the function of vowels; if namely a syllable contains r, l, n, m, and no other sounds which are more sonorous than one of these four, r, l, n, m become the sonants or vowels used as vowels. of the syllable (silbebildend, silbisch, Sonanten), and this function is indicated by a little circle under them; cf. Haydn $h\dot{\beta}^2e^2dn$, Ischl $\dot{\beta}^2\dot{s}\dot{l}$. They are all sonorous sounds, qualified by a pure musical tone without any noise. In the German unaccentuated syllables er, el, en, em the o1 is usually not pronounced and the following consonant becomes thereby a sonant or vowel: Bruder $br\dot{a}^1dr$, Vater $f\dot{a}^2tr$, Lager $l\dot{a}^2qr$, steinern $\dot{s}t\dot{\delta}^2e^2nyn$; Handel $\dot{h}d^2ndl$, eitel $\dot{s}\dot{\delta}^2e^2tl$, Kugel $kh\dot{u}^1gl$, lächeln $l\dot{e}^2h^1ln$; Händen $h\dot{e}^2ndn$, wachend $w\dot{a}^2h^2nt$; stillem stilm, Atem såtm (cf. Engl. idle, hidden, better and better, rhythm). So also in unstressed syllables, other than final: Büchelchen $b\tilde{a}^{\dagger}h^{\dagger}lh^{\dagger}n$, schneidenden $\delta n\delta^{2}e^{2}dndn$, geschnittenen $q\partial^1 \dot{s}n\dot{i}^2 tnn$, usually $q\partial^1 \dot{s}n\dot{i}^2 tnnn$. But the prefixes ver-, er-, zer-, ent-, em- are seldom pronounced as fr, r, tsr, nt, m^2 , mostly as $f\partial^1 r$, $\partial^1 r$, $ts\partial^1 r$, $\partial^1 nt$, $\partial^1 m^2$, e. g. vergangen, $f \partial^1 r q \dot{\alpha}^2 n \partial n$, entgangen $\partial^1 n t q \dot{\alpha}^2 n \partial n$, empfangen $\partial^2 m^2 \rho^2 f \dot{a}^2 w n$. In the same way, en, em, er, el, preceded by a vowel or i^2 , are pronounced as $\partial^1 n$, $\partial^1 m$, $\partial^1 r$, $\partial^1 l$, not as n, m, r, l; e. g. säen $z\dot{e}^2\partial^4 n$, sähen $z\dot{e}^2\partial^4 n$, Fener $f\delta^2\ddot{u}^2\partial^1r$, hoher $h\delta^1\partial^1r$, hohem $h\delta^1\partial^1m$, Bühel $b\ddot{u}^1\partial^1l$, Italien $zith\dot{a}^2li^2\partial^4n$, Spanier $\dot{s}p\dot{a}^2ni^2\partial^4r$.

Note. Occasionally a voiceless consonant can also undertake the function of a sonant; this is sometimes the case with es, which in familiar speech is often pronounced as s, instead of the more eareful 201s, e. g. ist's 212sts, es (s) kam ein Hund gelaufen, es (s) hat geregnet. Compare in Engl. Jones's džo2u2nss. Sonantal s and s occur also in the interjections st, št, pist, hš.

IV. Vocalism.

vocalic symbols and key-words. 56. Table of the 18 genuine German and the 4 French Vowels together with the list of the phonetical symbols and the key-words for the different spellings; for the explanations see §§ 57—69.



Combined vowels or diphthongs: $\partial^2 e^2$, $v^2 \rho^2$, $\partial^2 \ddot{u}^2$, $u^2 \ddot{u}^2$.

1) ā¹ high back tense round long: Mut; Huhn; *Kotzebue; Tour (only French words); Boer (only Dutch words).

2) u^2 high back lax round short: Mutter; Ressource (only French words). It forms the first component in $u^2\ddot{u}^2$: Luitpold; Louis (only French words); cf. § 68.

3) \bar{o}^1 mid back tense round long: Ofen; Hohn; Boot; Lützow (cf. § 38 note); Soest, Voigtland (only Low German words); Sauce $z\bar{o}^1s\bar{o}^1$, Plateau (only French words); Toast (only English words).

4) o^2 mid back lax round short: offen. In $o^2\ddot{u}^2$ it forms the first component: heute; Häute; Zuidersee (only Dutch words); Loisach; Savoyen (only in foreign words); cf. § 68.

- 5) \bar{q}^2 mid back lax round long nasalized: Ballon $ba^2l\hat{q}^2$, L'hombre $l\hat{\phi}^2br$ (only French words).
- 6) a^2 mid back lax long: Tal; Saal; Stahl; *Maestricht (only Dutch words); *Shawl (only English words); Toilette $th\partial^2 \dot{a}^2 l \dot{e}^2 t \partial^1$ (only French words).
 - 7) a² mid back lax short: Stall.
- 8) \bar{q}^2 mid back lax long nasalized: Chance $\xi \bar{q}^1 \xi \bar{\sigma}^1$, Pension $p^1 \bar{q}^2 z_i \hat{\sigma}^1 n$, Chambre $\xi \hat{q}^2 b_i r$, Temps $t h \bar{q}^2$ (only French words).
- 9) v^2 low back lax short, forms only the first element of the diphthong $v^2 \varrho^2$: Haus.
 - 10) 21 mid intermediate tense short: Knabe.
- 11) ∂^2 mid intermediate lax short, forms only the first component of the diphthong $\partial^2 e^2$: Weise; Waise; Meyer; Mayer; Yssel (only Dutch words); ef. § 68.
- 12) $\bar{\imath}^1$ high front tense long: Stil; Stiel; stiehl; ihn; Schwyz $\dot{\xi}b\bar{\bar{\iota}}^1\dot{t}\dot{\xi}$, Tyrol $t\dot{\bar{\iota}}^1r\dot{\sigma}^1l$ (also in foreign words: Radetzky, Jury); Spleen (only English words).
 - 13) i2 high front lax short: still; *Viertel fi2rt/.
- i^2 The same sound with the function of a consonant: Familie $f\ddot{a}^2mi^1li^2\partial^1$; cf. § 68.
- 14) \bar{e}^1 mid front tense long: gebe; stehle; See; Bankier $b\dot{a}^2\nu k_i^2\hat{e}^1$, Soiré $\dot{s}\dot{o}^2\dot{a}^2r\dot{\hat{e}}^1$ (only in French words).
- 15) \tilde{e}^2 mid front lax long: gäbe; stähle; Affaire $\hat{e}^2f\hat{e}^2r\partial^1$, Dessert $de^2s\hat{e}^2r$, Essay $\hat{e}^2s\hat{e}^2$ (only in French words).
 - 16) e2 mid front lax short: Stelle, Ställe.
- eq^2 the same sound as consonant in the diphthong $eg^2 e^2$ (cf. eg^2 (cf. eg^2)
- 17) \bar{e}^2 mid front lax long nasalized: Bassin $ba^2s\bar{e}^2$, Refrain $re^2fr\bar{e}^2$, bien $b_i\bar{e}^2$, Teint $fh\bar{e}^2$ (only in French words).
- 18) \vec{u}^1 mid front tense round long: Gemüter; Hühner; *Duisburg (only Low German words); Mythe (only Greek words); Brunette, Revue (only French words).
- 19) \ddot{u}^2 mid front lax round short: Mütter; System (only Greek words); Lustre (only French words).
- \ddot{u}^2 the same sound as consonant, forming the second component of the diphthongs $u^2\ddot{u}^2$ (cf. n⁰ 2) and $o^2\ddot{u}^2$ (cf. n⁰ 4).
- 20) \ddot{o}^1 low front tense round long: $\ddot{\mathbf{O}}$ fen; höhnisch; Goethe; Epopöe (only Greek words); Redacteur, Coeur (only French words).

21) ö² low front lax round short: öffnen.

22) \bar{g}^2 low front lax round long nasalized: Parfum $p^1 a^2 r f \ddot{\phi}^2$, Verdun $w e^2 r d \dot{\phi}^2$ (only French words).

57. If we examine the formation of the vowels, we must not start from the acoustic effect, the musical tone or note, but we have to examine them, like the consonants, from a physiological point of view, i. e. we have to start from the position of the organs of speech: cf. § 16. For, although in the formation of vowels the cavity of the mouth is open in its whole length, from the pharynx to the lips, and accordingly no interception of the breath (either by complete occlusion or by forming a narrow passage) takes place, and the channel of the mouth serves only as a resonance-chamber for the voice (or the voiceless breath, cf. § 58 note) produced by the vocal chords, we have nevertheless here too to speak of places of articulation (but not of places or modes of interception), as this resonance-chamber presents different shapes on account of the different positions of the tongue and the lips.

If we wish to classify the vowels from a physiological point of view, the following 4 factors are simultaneously to be taken into account:

1) the position of the vocal chords (voiced and voiceless vowels; cf. §§ 11, 2, 4. 58); 2) the position of the velum and the uvula (oral and nasalized vowels cf. §§ 13. 59); 3) the formation of the tongue; cf. §§ 14. 60—63; 4) the formation of the lips; cf. §§ 15. 67.

The first and second factors are identical for consonants and vowels; but the formations of the tongue and of the lips are, with few exceptions, characteristic of the vowels alone. The articulation of the tongue forms the constituent element of a vowel, the articulation of the lips is only modifying.

58. Vowels are pronounced, as their name indicates, with sounding vocal chords; and that they are the most voiced and voiceless vowels. sonorous of all sounds is due to the fact that the unchecked voice is considerably strengthened by the open resonance-chamber, the mouth.

Note. But we can produce any vowel with an open (§ 11, 2) [or half-open; § 11, 6] glottis, consequently as a voiceless [or half-voiced, whispered voiced] one. The acoustic effect is

that of an h, which, according to the position of the tongue and the lips required for the respective vowel, is to be determined as h^a , h^i , h^a etc., i. e. h pronounced from the a basis, from the i basis etc.; or, as we mark a consonantal vowel by a semicircle and voicelessness by a dot, as a, i, h etc.

These voiceless vowels appear very scantily in German, but they must be assumed by those who do not admit that the German h has the character of a consonant (cf. $\S 34$). A voiceless a can appear in the interjection aha = phonetically $\partial \hat{a}^2 a^2 \hat{a}^2$: i. e. throughout the whole word the unchanged position of tongue and lips is retained, but at the beginning of the word and at the end the vocal chords are elosed, in the middle opened; likewise in Sahara za2a2å2rà2; a voiceless ϱ in oho $\partial^{1} \varrho^{2} \dot{\sigma}^{1}$, Alkohol $\partial^{2} \dot{\sigma}^{2} \dot{\sigma}^{2}$; a voiceless or ϱ in Johannes $j\dot{\sigma}^1\varrho^2\dot{a}^2ne^2s$ or $j\dot{\sigma}^1a^2\dot{a}^2ne^2s$, Ahorn $\dot{a}^2a^2\dot{\sigma}^2rn$ or $\partial^2 \phi^2 \partial^2 r n$; a voiceless u in U hu (eagle-owl) $\partial^2 u^1 \dot{u}^1$, Schuhu $\sin^2 u^{1} \dot{u}^{1}$. These are cases where the German h could be = a, o, u, namely when h stands between two vowels which have the same articulation of the tongue at least. But as a rule the German h is not produced from a position of the mouthorgans required for a certain vowel, but from the organic basis (§ 8) and from the third position of the glottis (§ 11, 3).

- 59. The German vowels are all oral; accordingly the nasal cavity is shut by raising the velum and uvula. Nasalized vowels indicated by a hook under them, in oral and nasal which by lowering the velum both the nasal cavity and the mouth are open to the voice, occur only in words, which in comparatively modern times have been borrowed from French (Fig. XVIII): Entree $2\hat{q}^2tr\tilde{e}^1$, Ballon $ba^2l\tilde{\phi}^2$, Parfum $p^1a^2rf\tilde{\phi}^2$, Pince-nez $p^1\dot{e}^2sn\tilde{e}^1$, Train $tr\tilde{e}^2$. It is best to retain the French sounds in these and similar words; whilst French words, borrowed in older times, are pronounced after German fashion with the pure vowel+the alveolar nasal: Charlatan $s\tilde{e}^2rla^2t\tilde{e}^2n$, Finanz $f\tilde{e}^1n\tilde{e}^2nts$, Harlekin $h\tilde{e}^2rla^1kh\tilde{e}^2n$, Baron $b\tilde{e}^2r\tilde{e}^1n$, Postillion $p^1h\tilde{e}^2st\tilde{e}^2l\tilde{e}^2n$, Bastion $ba^2st\tilde{e}^2n$, Bataillon $b\tilde{e}^2ta^2l\tilde{e}^2n$.
- 60. As to the articulations of the tongue (cf. § 14) which for the vowels are always dorsal, certain parts of the tongue (horizontal positions) can of the tongue approach in different degrees (vertical positions) the pa-

late; and the surface of these articulating parts of the tongue can assume different shapes (tense — lax).

- 61. I. We have to distinguish between three horizontal positions of the tongue, which can be approximately deterHorizontal articulations of the tongue. upper teeth and the highest point of the articulating part of the tongue (see the table § 56 and Fig. XVI—XXII):
- 1) the tongue is retracted, and the back part of it is moved towards the soft palate (back vowels);
- 2) the tongue has an intermediate position, and the middle part of it is opposite the boundary region of the hard and the soft palates (intermediate or mixed vowels);
- 3) the tongue is pushed forwards, and the front part of it is moved towards the hard palate (front vowels);
 - Note 1. The expression "horizontal" is to be understood loosely, not literally, for the channel of the mouth is no cavity with a completely horizontal position, but represents a slightly bent tube.
 - Note 2. The expression "mixed", which is better avoided, is due to the false conception, that in forming vowels of this group the front and the back parts of the tongue participate simultaneously.
- 62. II. In the vertical positions of the tongue the distance between the highest point of the articulating part of vertical articulations of the tongue and the nearest opposite part of the articulations of the tongue. The tongue are to measured, and, according to the greater or less degree to which the tongue is lowered, we divide the vowels into 1) high, 2) mid, and 3) low vowels; ef. the table § 56 and Fig. XVI—XXII.
 - Note 1. The expression "vertical" is not to be taken in the strict sense of the word. If we quite roughly represent the three different degrees by a sector of 4 concentric circles; we might say that the tongue descends in a centripetal direction: accordingly, with the back vowels from above-back towards below-front; with the front vowels from above-front towards below-back; only with the intermediate vowels can we speak with any strictness of a vertical descent.
 - Note 2. Standard English does not use the low back

lax v^2 which occurs in Cockney English father instead of the mid back lax a^2 in Engl. father. In German v^2 appears only as the first component of the diphthong $v^2 \varrho^2$, as in Haus, but it is an independent vowel in some dialects, e. g. Bavarian-Austrian Vater $f_*\bar{v}^2 t v$.

- 63. III. The articulating part of the tongue can either 1) show a greater convexity which can be noticed in the muscles by a feeling of tenseness, and which, of course, diminishes the distance between the articulating part of the tongue and the palate. Such vowels, denoted by the exponent 1, are called closed, narrow or tense (geschlossene, enge, gespannte). They are: \bar{u}^1 , $\bar{\sigma}^1$; \bar{i}^1 , \bar{e}^1 , \bar{u}^1 , \bar{o}^1 .
- Or 2) the articulating part of the tongue can be more flattened: the muscles are in a state of relative relaxation, and the distance between the palate and the articulating part of the tongue is, of course, greater. The vowels of this group, denoted by the exponent 2, are termed open, wide or lax (offene, weite, ungespanute). They are: \check{u}^2 , \check{o}^2 , \check{q}^2 , \check{a}^2 , \check{a}^2 , \check{a}^2 ; \check{b}^2 ; \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 , \check{e}^2 .
 - Note 1. The difference is best expressed by the terms "tense" and "lax"; for the expression "closed", "narrow" and "open", "wide" are open to objections, as they only refer to the distance between the tongue and the palate, and a vowel with a greater distance from the palate, e. g. e^1 , would be called "narrow" or "closed", whilst a vowel with a less distance, e. g. i^2 , is "wide" or "open".
 - Note 2. In consequence of the flattened state of the tongue with the English organic basis (cf. § 8) the corresponding English tense vowels are missing: $\tilde{\sigma}^1$, \bar{u}^1 , and $\bar{\sigma}^1$ absolutely, \bar{u}^1 , $\bar{\sigma}^1$, $\bar{\iota}^1$, \bar{e}^1 only in the standard English (South Engl.): North English and especially Scottish have maintained these 4 old vowels: too $th\bar{u}^1$, so $s\bar{\sigma}^1$, sea $s\bar{\iota}^1$, say $s\bar{e}^1$; (compare the Germ. tu $th\bar{u}^1$, so $z\bar{\sigma}^1$, sieh $z\bar{\iota}^1$, See $z\bar{e}^1$.) South English has substituted for them diphthongs, consisting of lax vowels: thu^2u^2 , so^2u^2 , $si^2\dot{\iota}^2$, $se^2\dot{\iota}^2$.
- 64. With the exception of ∂^1 which is always short, and of u^2 and e^2 which are short or long, in the German (i. e. oral) vowels with the difference between tense and lax is also connected a difference short vowels.

of quantity, so that the tense vowels are always long, and the lax vowels always short. It therefore seems to be most convenient to discuss the appearance of the individual tense and lax vowels in connection with their quantity in §§ 69—74. Here it is, however, necessary to demarcate the provinces of the different e sounds: \bar{e}^1 , \bar{e}^2 ; \check{o}^1 , \check{o}^2 , \check{e}^2 .

The French (i. e. nasal) vowels, appearing in borrowed words, are pronounced in German always long and lax, so that we have in this ease also a long \bar{q}^2 and $\bar{\rho}^2$, whilst the same sounds without nasalisation are transmuted into $\bar{\sigma}^1$ and $\bar{\sigma}^1$ in French words, adopted by N. H. G., e. g. Redacteur $r\dot{e}^1da^2kth\dot{\bar{\sigma}}^1r$, Corps $kh^1\bar{\sigma}^1r$, in contradistinction to the pronunciation in French with $\bar{\sigma}^2$ and $\bar{\sigma}^2$.

65. The mid front tense long \bar{e}^1 (Fig. XXI) is expressed in writing by e, ee, eh; in French words also by \acute{e} and \bar{e}^1 and \bar{e}^2 . er: gebe $g\dot{e}^1b\partial^1$, Erde $\dot{e}\dot{e}^1rd\partial^1$, Schwert $\dot{s}\dot{p}\bar{e}^1rt$, Peter $p^1\dot{h}\dot{e}^1tr$, Colleg $\dot{k}o^2l\dot{e}^1h^1$, Poet $p^1\dot{\sigma}^1\dot{e}^1t$, Facsimile $fa^2\dot{k}\dot{s}\dot{t}^1m\dot{t}^2l\dot{e}^1$, Athene $\dot{c}\dot{a}^2t\dot{h}\dot{e}^1n\dot{e}^1$, ade $\dot{c}\dot{a}^2d\dot{e}^1$, Ave $\dot{c}\dot{a}^2v\dot{e}^1$, Dresden $dr\dot{e}^1\dot{s}t\dot{v}$; Heer $\dot{h}\bar{e}^1r$, Idee $\dot{c}\dot{t}^1d\dot{e}^1$, Kaffee $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{u}^2f\dot{e}^1$; stehle $\dot{s}\dot{t}\dot{e}^1l\partial^1$, Ehre $\dot{c}\dot{e}^1r\partial^1$; $Caf\acute{e}$ $\dot{k}a^2f\dot{e}^1$; Souper $z\dot{a}^1p^1\dot{h}\dot{e}^1$.

The mid front lax long \bar{e}^2 is written by \ddot{a} , $\ddot{a}h$; ae (in words conveyed into German through Latin); ai, ay and e (in French words): gābe $g\dot{e}^2b\partial^1$, sāen $z\dot{e}^2\partial^1 n$, Stādte $\dot{s}\dot{t}\dot{e}^2t\partial^1$, Mādchen $m\dot{e}^2t\dot{h}^1\eta$, nāchst $n\bar{e}^2\dot{h}^1\dot{s}t$, Diāt $d\dot{\tau}^1\dot{e}^2t$, Dāmon $d\dot{e}^2m\dot{\sigma}^1 n$, Kapitān $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\alpha}^2\dot{p}^1\dot{i}^2t\dot{h}\dot{e}^2n$; stāhle $\dot{s}\dot{t}\dot{e}^2l\partial^1$, Ähre $\dot{z}\dot{e}^2r\partial^1$; Athenaeum $\dot{z}\dot{\alpha}^2t\dot{e}^1n\dot{e}^2u^2m$; Affaire $\dot{z}a^2f\dot{e}^2r\partial^1$; Essay $\dot{z}e^2\dot{s}\dot{e}^2$; Dessert $de^2\dot{s}\dot{e}^2r$.

 $\tilde{\delta}^1$, $\tilde{\delta}^2$ and $\tilde{\epsilon}^2$. 66. The mid intermediate lax short $\tilde{\delta}^2$ (the same sound as in Engl. together) appears only as first component of the diphthong $\tilde{\delta}^2 e^2$: Seite, Saite $z \tilde{\delta}^2 e^2 t \tilde{\delta}^1$; ef. § 56, 11.

 $p^1r\delta^1m\delta^1n\delta^2d\delta^1$, Infanterie $i^2nfa^2nt\delta^1rt^3$, Route $r\delta^1t\delta^1$, Bronze $br\delta^2s\delta^1$. Exceptions are a few French words, as *Service ze^2rwi^1s , *Omelette $i\delta^1m\delta^1l\dot{e}^2t$, especially proper nouns in which the ending e is not pronounced, e.g. Racine, and Greek and Latin words which have \bar{e}^1 at the end, as Athene $i\delta^2th\dot{e}^1n\dot{e}^1$, promiseue $p^1r\dot{e}^1m\dot{e}^2sku^2\dot{e}^1$.

Note. If er $z\bar{e}^1r$, es ze^2s , der $d\bar{e}^1r$, des de^2s , dem $d\bar{e}^1m$, den $d\bar{e}^1n$, and ein $ze^2\underline{e}^2n$ become enclitie or proclitie, they mostly receive the sound e^1 , e. g. es (ze^1s) war einmal $(e^1nm^1\hat{a}^2l)$ ein (e^1n) König.

In all the other cases appears the mid front lax short e^2 , which has in German words always a stress (principal or secundary accent) and is written by e and \ddot{a} ; e. g. Stelle and Ställe $\xi t e^2 l \sigma^1$, Ferse (heel) and Färse (heifer) $f e^2 r z \sigma^1$, Vers $f e^2 r s$, Elend $z e^4 l e^2 \eta t$, faulenzen $f \dot{\sigma}^2 \sigma^2 l e^2 \eta t s \eta$, Herberge $h \dot{e}^2 r b \dot{e}^2 r j \sigma^1$, Hotel $h \dot{\sigma}^1 t \dot{e}^2 l$, Chef $\dot{s} e^2 f$.

Unaccentuated e^2 occurs only in some foreign words borrowed from Romanee languages, as Ressource $re^2s\dot{u}^2rs\dot{\sigma}^1$, Decret $de^2kr\dot{\varepsilon}^1t$, and in foreign words, ending in es: e. g. Achilles $2\dot{a}^2h^2\dot{i}^2le^2s$, Johannes $j\dot{\sigma}^1h\dot{a}^2ne^2s$.

67. The most essential formations of which the lips are capable are already mentioned in § 15. Theoretically any articulation of the tongue could be combined Articulations with any articulation of the lips; this, however, of the lips is not in point of fact the case. In general we can say: the higher the position of the tongue, the more marked the articulation of the lips, i.e. the more intense the rounding or the narrower the slit.

Vowels which are pronounced with rounded lips are called round, rounded or labialised (gerundet, labialisiert).

The i-slit of the lips, combined with the high front position of the tongue, appears in \bar{i}^1 , i^2 .

- ", e-slit of the lips, combined with the mid front position of the tongue, appears in \bar{e}^1 , \bar{e}^2 , \bar{e}^2 .
- u-rounding of the lips, combined with the high back position of the tongue, appears in \bar{u}^1 , u^2 .
- u-rounding of the lips, combined with the mid front position of the tongue, appears in \bar{u}^1 , \bar{u}^2 .
- o-rounding of the lips, combined with the mid back position of the tongue, appears in \bar{o}^1 , o^2 , \bar{q}^2 .

The o-rounding of the lips, combined with the low front position of the tongue, appears in $\bar{\partial}^1$, $\bar{\partial}^2$, $\bar{\partial}^2$.

passive opening of the lips, combined with the mid back position of the tongue, appears in \bar{a}^2 , \bar{a}^2 .

passive opening of the lips, combined with the low back position of the tongue, appears in v^2 .

massive opening of the lips, combined with the mid intermediate position of the tongue, appears in ∂^1 , ∂^2 .

Note. As to the articulation of the tongue, the rounded front vowels are practically identical with the corresponding unrounded front vowels: therefore mid front rounded \bar{u}^1 in fühle has the same position of the tongue as mid front \bar{e}^1 in fehle; mid front rounded \bar{u}^2 in Fülle the same as mid front e^2 in Fälle. We have no corresponding unrounded sounds for the low front rounded \bar{v}^1 and \bar{v}^2 in German; but they exist in English, which on the other hand, in consequence of its disinclination to activity of the lips (cf. § 8), does not any longer possess rounded front vowels. English \bar{w}^1 in care, pronounced with rounded lips, would result in German \bar{v}^1 , as in Chöre $kh\bar{v}^1rv^1$; and English \bar{w}^2 in man, pronounced with rounded lips, would result in German \bar{v}^2 , as in Mönch $m\bar{v}^2vh^1$.

68. Vowels with the function of a consonant, i. e. not forming a syllable, appear in N. H. G. only in diphthongs. By vowels with the function of consonants; diphthongs we mean a monosyllabic combination of two single vowels which are pronounced with the same breath of expiration. In such a combination one vowel has the function of a sonant, the other the function of a consonant.

Diphthongs, like the real German ones, in which the sonant precedes and the consonant follows are called falling. There are 4 falling diphthongs in N. H. G.: $\partial^2 \varrho^2$ (as in Eis), $\partial^2 \varrho^2$ (as in Haus), $\partial^2 \tilde{u}^2$ (as in heute, *Loisach, *Boi), $u^2 \tilde{u}^2$ (as in *Luitpold, *hui, *pfui); and in these ϱ^2 , ϱ^2 , \tilde{u}^2 form, as indicated by the semicircle, the consonants.

Diphthongs in which the consonant precedes and the sonant follows are called **rising**. They appear in N. H. G. only in words borrowed from Romance languages, and the consonant is here invariably i^2 (not j; cf. § 36 note). E. g. Familie $f^{\dot{a}}m^i l^i l^{\dot{a}} e^i$, Union $e^{i l} n^i l^{\dot{a}} e^{i l} n$, adieu $e^{i l} e^{i l} l^{\dot{a}} e^{i l}$, Ban-

kier $b\hat{\alpha}^2 p k \hat{i}^2 \hat{e}^1$, Indien $z\hat{i}^2 n d \hat{i}^2 \hat{\sigma}^1 n$, Spanier $sp^4 \hat{\alpha}^2 n \hat{i}^2 \hat{\sigma}^1 r$, Studium $st\hat{\alpha}^2 d \hat{i}^2 u^2 m$, Hygiene $h\hat{\bar{u}}^1 g \hat{i}^2 \hat{e}^1 n \hat{\sigma}^1$; \hat{i}^2 especially appears after the affricata ts, as in Nation $n\hat{\alpha}^2 ts \hat{i}^2 \hat{\sigma}^1 n$, Patient $p^4 \hat{a} ts \hat{i}^2 \hat{e}^2 n t$, Latium $l\hat{\alpha}^2 ts \hat{i}^2 u^2 m$, martialisch $m\hat{\alpha}^2 r ts \hat{i}^2 \hat{\alpha}^2 l \hat{i}^2 s$, Akazie $z\hat{\alpha}^2 k h\hat{\alpha}^2 ts \hat{i}^2 \hat{\sigma}^1$.

Note. That ai and au do not contain an a^2 can be proved by the fact, that they can not be heard at the same distance as a^2 , which as the most sonorous vowel is heard furthest. In general the consonants of the English falling diphthongs differ from the German ones by a somewhat higher position of the tongue; cf.:

Germ. $\partial^2 g^2$ in Eis with Engl. $a^2 i^2$ in iee.

Germ. $v^2 \dot{\varrho}^2$ in Haus with American-Engl. $a^2 \dot{\varrho}^2$ in house. Germ. $o^2 \dot{\varrho}^2$ in Boi with Engl. $o^2 \dot{\varrho}^2$ in boy.

69. The quantity of a vowel depends on the duration of time which is required to produce the vowel; as the duration of time varies according to velocity of speech, the quantity of the vowels varies also, so that a grees of quantity of vowel, usually short, becomes long in slow speaking, and a vowel, usually long, becomes over-long. The terms "short" and "long" have accordingly not an absolute value, but only a relative one, and the ratio of the duration of the individual sounds is not essentially disturbed by a change of velocity of speech.

For practical purposes it will be sufficient to distinguish four degrees of quantity: 1) **short** (unmarked) Kamm kha^2m ; 2) **half-long** (+) Berta $be^2rth\dot{a}^2$; 3) (normal-)long (-) kamen $kh\dot{a}^2mn$; 4) **over-long** (=) kam $kh\dot{a}^2m$.

- 70. Short vowels occur in the following eases: Short vowels
- 2) a^2 with a secondary stress in the suffix -sam, as heilsam, and in *Heimat and *Mónat. a^2 is often short in da, na, ja, ha, when they express resentment.

- 3) The components of the diphthongs; cf. § 68.
- 4) Vowels are short before more than one spoken (not written) consonant; exceptions to this general rule are given in § 72, 3. E. g. Schlacht, Spatz, ward, Jagd, hart, barsch (rude), Mensch, fertig, Herz, Lord lort, Wind, wird, irdisch, Brust, Furt, flugs fluzks, Post, polnisch, rüsten, rüstig, gebürtig; also in compounds, e.g. Lorbeer, Walnusz, Singrün.
- 5) Before a fortis, expressed by a double consonant: e. g. Hütte $h\dot{u}^2t\partial^1$, Ecke $\partial^2k\partial^1$, hoffe $h\dot{\phi}^2f\partial^1$, all $\partial^2l\partial^2$.
- 6) Before a spoken (not written) single consonant: a) in different words, e. g. um, zum, zur, Luther $l\dot{u}^2ty$, ob, von, Jot, hin, mit, in, an, weg: cf. § 72, 2. Also in foreign words, as Kapítel, Artíkel, Apríl, Chef, Billet $bi^2l\dot{u}\dot{e}^2t$, Rum, Gala, Metapher $me^2t\dot{a}^2fy$, Grammatik $gra^2-m\dot{a}^2t\dot{v}^2k$, Kap, Klub klu^2p^4 .
- b) Before s (written ss, sz) in Flusz, Flüsse, flosz, flösse, Gusz, gosz, Genosse, Genusz, genosz, Verdrusz, Kusz, küsse, Schüssel, Schlusz, Schlosz, Schlüssel, Schusz, schosz, Schosz (1. branch; 2. taxes), Trosz, Nusz, müssen, musz (but Mus $m\bar{u}^4s$ pap), Rüssel, Ambosz, nasz, Fasz, Hasz, blasz, lassen, essen, fressen, messen, isz, frisz, misz and the derivatives of these words.
- e) Before § (written sch) in rasch, Asche, waschen (but wusch wā'ṣ), Wäsche, Esche, dreschen, drosch, drösche, löschen, lisch, Böschung, Frosch, Busch, Büsche, Tisch, mischen, Dusche, Muschel and derived forms.
- d) Before h^1 and h^2 (written ch) in Geruch, Bruch (fraction), Wucher, Sichel, frech, Pech, nach, wach, Dach, lachen, Fach, Fächer, Bach, Rache, rächen, Koch, kochen, Köche, Küche, kroch, roch, kröche, röche, stechen, stich, gestochen (but stach $f_1^2h^2$), sprechen, sprich, gesprochen, Spruch (but sprach $f_1^2h^2h^2$) and Sprache $f_1^2h^2h^2h^2$ and derived forms.
- e) Before n (written ng) always, e. g. sang, fing, gefangen, gesungen, Finger fi^2nr .
- 71. The (normal-) long and over-long vowels can be treated together, as any (normal-) long vowel in pausa, i.e. at

the end of a stress-group, becomes over-long: Relation bethis takes place especially in a stressed monosyllope long and overlable word or in the stressed last syllable of a polysyllable word. E. g. drei Márk | bóten $(b\hat{o}^1tp)$ sie or drei Márk | bót $(b\bar{o}^1t)$ er; but wás er | bót, $(b\bar{o}^1t)$ | wár drei | Márk or drei Márk, | díe er | bót $(b\bar{o}^1t)$.

The same rule can also be applied to a diphthong which, although consisting of two short components, forms a unity and is equal to a long vowel, so that e.g. $v^2 \rho^2$ in der | blaue $(bl\dot{v}^2 \rho^2 \rho^1)$ | Himmel is (normal-) long, whilst $v^2 \rho^2$ in der | Himmel ist | blau $(blv^2 \rho^2)$ has a longer duration and is over-long.

The German spelling does not mark the length in a uniform way. The length is 1) unmarked, as in waren (were), her (hither), Stil (style); 2) expressed by doubling the vowel, as in Waaren (wares), Heer (army); 3) expressed by an additional h, as in wahren (to defend), hehr (sublime); 4) expressed by the addition of an e, as in Stiel (handle), Soest $(z\bar{o}^1st)$; 5) expressed by eh, as in stiehl (imperativ of stehlen). In all these cases the pronunciation of the respective words is identical: $w\hat{a}^2rv$, $h\bar{e}^1r$, $st\bar{i}^1l$.

The spellings 2-5 are indubitable criteria of the length, with exception of a few cases with *ie*; cf. § 74.

72. The (normal-)long and over-long vowels are to be found 1) in syllables with the principal accent; 2) in syllables with the secondary accent only, if the principal one does not immediately precede or follow (in which ease the half length long and over long vowels. appears; cf. § 73). E. g. wunderbar $w\dot{u}^2ndrb\dot{a}^2r$, wunderbare $w\dot{u}^2ndrb\dot{a}^2r\sigma^1$ (but lesbar(e) $l\dot{e}^1s\dot{b}\dot{a}^2r(\sigma^1)$); Heiligtum $h\dot{\sigma}^2e^2li^2h^1th\dot{u}^1m$, Heiligtümer $h\dot{\sigma}^2e^2li^2h^1th\dot{u}^1m$; (but Irrtumer $i^2rth\dot{a}^1m$, Irrtümer $i^2rth\dot{a}^1m$); urgemütlich $i\dot{a}^1rg\sigma^1m\ddot{a}^1t-li^2h^1$ (but urplötzlich $i\dot{a}^1rp^1l\dot{\sigma}^2tsli^2h^1$); Corridor $kh\dot{\sigma}^2ri^2d\dot{\sigma}^1r$ (but Doctor $d\dot{\sigma}^2kth\dot{\sigma}^1r$).

The (normal-) long and over-long vowels appear in the following eases:

1) In words and syllables ending in a vowel, e. g. wo, zu, See, ahá, ade $z\dot{a}^2d\hat{e}$, Logis $l\dot{\sigma}^1\dot{z}\dot{t}^1$, Revue $re^2w\hat{u}^1$, säen and sähen $z\dot{e}^2\partial^1 n$, Seeen and sehen $z\dot{e}^1\partial^1 n$, höher $h\dot{\tilde{\sigma}}^1\partial^1 r$, Maria $m\dot{a}^2r\dot{t}^1\dot{a}^2$.

2) In words and syllables ending in a single spoken consonant, no matter how many are written; exceptions to this general rule are to be found in § 70, 6. E. g. mir, wem, rot, Flug, Pflug, pflügen, bat(en), Weg(e), Tal(es), Berlin $be^2rl\tilde{t}^1n$, beredt $b\partial^1r\tilde{e}t$, wusch $w\bar{u}^1$, wüsche $w\bar{u}^1$, wüsche $w\bar{u}^1$, So also in foreign words, e. g. nervös(e), Natúren, Poet $p^1\dot{\sigma}^1\dot{e}^1t$, Redacteúr(e), Kapitän(e), Granít, Profít, Títel, the words in -ik as Musik, Mathematik, Lectüre, Mythe, Lyrik $l\bar{u}^1ri^2k$, Spasz, Paket $p^1\dot{a}^2k\dot{h}\dot{e}^1t$, Peter $p^1\dot{h}\dot{e}^1t\gamma$, Scene $sts\dot{e}^1n\partial^1$, Trompete, das Colleg $ko^2l\dot{e}^1\dot{h}^1$ (the lecture), der College $ko^2l\dot{e}^1\dot{j}\partial^1$ (the colleague), the words in $-i\delta^1n$, as Union $s\dot{u}^1n\dot{e}^0n$, Nation $n\dot{a}^2ts\dot{e}^0n$.

The long vowels before s (written sz, ss) in the following German words deserve a special mention: asz, äsze, frasz, fräsze, Gefräsz, sasz, säsze, masz, Masz, gemäsz, Strasze, Schosz (lap), blosz, stoszen, Stosz, grosz, Grösze, Fusz, Füsze, Busze, büszen, Musze, müszig, süsz and derived forms (cf. § 70, 6, b); and the long vowels before h^1 and h^2 (written ch) in the words: Schmach, brach, bräche, stach, stäche, sprach, spräche, Sprache, Gespräch, hoch, Buche, Buch, Bücher, Tuch, Fluch, fluchen, suchen, Kuchen, Bruch (fen) and derived forms (cf. § 70, 6, d).

- 3) Vowels followed by more than one consonant are nevertheless long in the following cases (cf. \S 70, 4):
- a) Before rd, rt, rts (written rz), rs, rš (written rsch), rh¹ (written rch) in Herde, Beschwerde, Verden, Erde (but irdisch ?i²rdiš), the forms of werden containing an e (but the vowels in wird, wirst, ward, wurde, geworden are short), Gebärde, Behörde, Herd, Pferd; Schwert, wert, Art, zart, Bart, Geburt; Harz; erst, Börse; Barsch (perch); Märchen; and derived forms.
- b) Before st (and zd, written sd) in Trost, trösten, Kloster, Ostern, Östreich, Ost(en) (but also with \check{o}^2), Wust, wüst, Wüste, Schuster, Husten, düster, Estland; Dresden (mostly $dr\acute{e}^1stu$, seldom $dr\acute{e}^1zdu$); and derived forms.
- e) Before tṣ and tṣ (written ts, z, tz, tsch) in stets, Lotse, Rätsel, Hospiz, Schwyz, Gratz, Königgrätz, hätscheln.
 - d) In some isolated words, as Papst, Probst, Vogt,

Magd, Mädehen, Krebs, Obst $xo^{4}p^{4}st$, Mond $mo^{4}nt$, Montag, Adler, Wuchs, wuchs $w\bar{u}^{4}ks$, wüchse, atmen, nächst $n\bar{e}^{2}h^{4}st$, höchst $h\bar{o}^{4}h^{4}st$, nebst, Kebse, Obrigkeit, Obrist; Hedwig and Ludwig are pronounced with a long or short vowel. Most of these words have lost a vowel between the consonants, e.g. Magd \leftarrow O. H. G. magad, höchst \leftarrow O. H. G. hōhisto, a process still quite clear in such words as ēdler, Gēgner, übrig, ātmen and the verbal forms, as lēbst, lēbt, where the corresponding forms with the vowel between the consonants still exist, as ēdel, gēgen, über, Ātem, lēbest, lēbet, etc.

73. Long and over-long vowels immediately before or after the principal accent are pronounced half-long; the tense long vowels keep their quality and do The half-long vowels.

Examples. a) Before the principal accent: lebend $l\dot{e}^1$ -byt — lebendig $l\dot{\bar{e}}^1b\dot{e}^2nd\dot{i}^2h^1$, Probe $p^1r\dot{\sigma}^1b\dot{\sigma}^1$ — probieren $p^1r\dot{\sigma}^1b\dot{\tau}^1ry$, Chor $kh\ddot{\sigma}^1r$ — Chor al $kh\ddot{\sigma}^1r\dot{a}^2l$, Datum $d\dot{a}^2tu^2m$ — datieren $d\dot{a}^2th\dot{\tau}^1ry$, Studium $\dot{s}t\dot{u}^1d\dot{z}^2u^2m$ — Student $\dot{s}t\dot{u}^1-d\dot{e}^2\eta t$, da $d\ddot{a}^2$ — damit $d\dot{a}^2m\dot{\tau}^2t$, zu $ts\ddot{u}^1$ — zugleich $ts\dot{u}^1-gl\dot{\sigma}^2e^2h^1$, wahr $u\ddot{a}^2r$ — wahrhaftig $u\dot{a}^2rh\dot{a}^2ft\dot{\tau}^2h^1$, vor $f\ddot{\sigma}^1r$ — vorbei $f\dot{\sigma}^1rb\dot{\sigma}^2e^2$, wohl $u\ddot{\sigma}^1l$ — wohlan $u\dot{\sigma}^1l\dot{\sigma}^2n$, Süd $z\ddot{\bar{u}}^1t$ — Süd west $z\dot{\bar{u}}^1tu\dot{e}^2st$, Jahr $j\ddot{a}^2r$ — Jahrhundert $j\dot{\bar{a}}^2rh\dot{u}^2ndrt$, viel $f\ddot{\tau}^1l$ — vielleicht $f\dot{\tau}^1l\dot{\sigma}^2e^2h^1t$.

- b) After the principal accent: lesbar $l\hat{e}^1 s b\hat{a}^2 r$, Irrtum $l\hat{e}^2 r t h\hat{a}^1 m$, Heirat $l\hat{e}^2 e^2 r \hat{a}^2 t$, Zierat $l\hat{e}^1 r \hat{a}^2 t$, Berta $l\hat{e}^2 r t h\hat{a}^2$, Jena $l\hat{e}^1 n \hat{a}^2$, Uhu $l\hat{a}^1 h \hat{a}^1$, Hindu $l\hat{e}^2 n d\hat{a}^1$, Juli $l\hat{e}^2 l\hat{e}^1$, Lützow $l\hat{u}^2 l s \hat{b}^1$, so $l\hat{e}^2 l l\hat{e}^2 l$. See $l\hat{e}^2 l l\hat{e}^2 l$ also $l\hat{e}^2 l s \hat{e}^2 l$, zehn $l\hat{e}^2 l n l\hat{e}^2 l$ urteil $l\hat{e}^2 r l h \hat{e}^2 e^2 l$. Sehönheit $l\hat{e}^2 l n h \hat{e}^2 e^2 l$, Maria $l\hat{e}^2 l n h \hat{e}^2 l n h \hat{e}^2 l$. Doctoren $l\hat{e}^2 l l h \hat{e}^2 l n h \hat{e}^2 l$. Doctoren $l\hat{e}^2 l l h \hat{e}^2 l n h \hat{e}^2 l$.
- e) Sometimes a double change takes place owing to shifting of the accent; e. g. Drama $dr\dot{a}^2m\dot{a}^2$ dramatisch $dr\dot{a}^2m\dot{a}t^{i2}$, Juno $j\dot{a}^1n\dot{b}^1$ junonisch $j\dot{a}^1n\dot{b}^1ni^2$, Caesar $t\dot{s}\dot{e}^2z\dot{a}^2r$ Caesaren $t\dot{s}\dot{e}^2z\dot{a}^2r\eta$, Idee $\dot{z}\dot{t}^1d\dot{e}^1$ ideal $\dot{z}\dot{t}^1d\dot{e}^1\dot{a}^2l$, Kleinod $kl\dot{b}^2e^2n\dot{b}^1t$ Kleinodien $kl\dot{b}^2e^2n\dot{b}^1d\dot{z}^2a^1n$.
- 74. In certain words the short vowel becomes long, if an additional syllable follows: *Zug $t s u^2 h^2$ Zuges $t s \bar{u} g \partial^4 s$,

Züge $ts\bar{u}^{1}j\partial_{1}$, *Schub $\dot{s}u^{2}p^{1}$ — Schubes $\dot{s}\dot{u}^{1}b\partial_{1}s$, Short and long *Lob lo^2p^1 - Lobes $l\delta^1b\partial^1s$, *grob gro^2p^1 - grobe vowels in the same word. $gr\delta^1b\delta^1$,*Grab gra^2p^1 — Grabes $gr\delta^2b\delta^1s$, Gräber $qr\dot{e}^2br$, *Trab tra^2p^1 — Trabes $tr\dot{a}^2ba^4s$, *Bad ba^2t — Bades $b\dot{a}^2d\partial^4s$, *Rad ra^2t — Rades $r\dot{a}^2d\partial^4s$, *Glas gla^2s — Glases $gl\dot{a}^2z\partial^4s$, *Schlag $\dot{s}la^2h^2$ — Schlages $\dot{s}l\dot{a}^2a\partial^4s$, *Schmied šmi²t — Schmiedes šmi¹də¹s, *Stadt šta²t — Städte $\delta t e^2 t \partial$; ob $\partial^2 p^1$ is only in *Obacht $\partial^2 b a^2 h^2 t$ long. Noteworthy is Charakter ka²rá²ktr, but Charaktere khà²: $ra^2kth\dot{e}^1r\partial^1$. Of verbal forms may be mentioned *hat, *hast. *gehabt, *hatte, but habe, and kriegen kriijn, which in all forms is pronounced with $\bar{\imath}^1$, if it is = "to wage war"; but if is means "to get", then the forms *kriegst, *kriegt, *gekriegt and the whole imperfect kriegte are pronounced with i^2 , kri^2h^1st etc.

Some monosyllabie words with a long vowel appear with a short one in certain compounds: $ur - 2\bar{u}^1r - *Urteil 2\hat{u}^2r + \hbar \hat{\sigma}^2 e^2l$; vor $f\bar{o}r - *Vorteil fo^2r \hbar \hat{\sigma}^2 e^2l$, *vor wärts $f\hat{o}^2r w\hat{e}^2r t\hat{s}$; zu $t\hat{s}\bar{u}^1 - *zur t\hat{s}\hat{u}^2r$, *zum $t\hat{s}u^2m$; hoch $\hbar \bar{o}^1\hbar^2 - *Hochzeit \hbar \hat{o}^2\hbar^2t\hat{s}\hat{\sigma}^2e^2t$, *Hoffahrt $\hbar \hat{o}^2\bar{f}\hat{\sigma}^2r t$ (\hbar^2f assimilated to f); der Wal $w\bar{a}^2l$ (whale) — *Walfisch $w\hat{a}^2lf^2\hat{s}$, *Walrosz $w\hat{a}^2lr\hat{\sigma}^2\hat{s}$; vier $f\bar{t}^1r - *vierzehn fi^2rt\hat{s}\hat{e}^2n$, *vierzig $fi^2rt\hat{s}i^2\hbar^1$, *Viertel firtl, *vierteilen $fl^2rt\hbar\hat{\sigma}^2e^2ln$; so also jene $j\hat{e}^1n\hat{\sigma}^1 - *jenseits j\hat{e}^2nz\hat{\sigma}^2e^2t\hat{s}$; and with different spelling: die Wahl $w\bar{a}^2l$ (battle field) — *Walhalla $w\hat{a}^2l\hbar\hat{a}^2$, *Walküren $w\hat{a}^2l-\hbar\hbar\hat{u}^1rn$; wohl $w\bar{\sigma}^1l - *Wollnst w\hat{\sigma}^2l\hat{u}^2\hat{s}t$; Heer $\hbar\bar{e}^1r - *Herzog \hbar\hat{e}^2rt\hat{s}\hat{\sigma}^1\hbar^2$, *Herberge $\hbar e^2rb\hat{e}^2rj\hat{\sigma}^1$.

V. Synthesis.

- 75. Although in the preceding paragraphs we had to examine the sounds in their isolation, and often with regard to only one of their qualities, we had nevertheless also sometimes to pay attention to their surroundings and to anticipate some facts, which really belong to the province of synthesis (Combinationslehre), which has to deal with the concurrence of all the properties of the sounds and their mutual relations.
- 76. After a sound has been formed, the organs of speech do not return to the organic basis in order to articulate the following sound, but the transition from one sound to another takes place in the shortest way, and simplification if, in doing so, the breath of expiration continues, sounds of transition are formed, which are called glides (Gleitlaute), in contradistinction to the sounds with fixed positions (Stellungslaute). E. g. in the word Lauf ln^2o^2f the organs of speech, after having produced l, do not return to the organie basis in order to form v^2 , and after having pronounced p^2 , they do not return to the organic basis in order to form g^2 , etc., but pass directly from the l position to the p^2 position, from the p^2 position to the q^2 position, and from this to the f position. The glides which are formed in the transition from l to v^2 , from v^2 to q^2 , from q^2 to f, need not be expressed in writing, as they result automatically.

A consequence of the tendency to perform the movements of articulation in the shortest way and in the shortest time, is the tendency to perform only once those movements which are common to the neighbouring sounds. The principal cases which result from this are the following:

77. When a d or t is followed by an l, e.g. in edle,

Atlas, in the explosion of d or t the occlusion, which is formed by the alveoli and the tongue, is not opened in order transference of the place of explosion in occlusive sounds. through forming lateral openings, necessary for the articulation of l. (Lateral explosion instead of the median one.)

In a similar manner in the groups bm, p^1m^1 , e.g. in Obmann, and in the groups dn, tn, e.g. in Edna, Ätna, the usual explosion of the bilabial and alveolar occlusive sounds does not take place, to be immediately followed by the same occlusion for m and n, but the explosion of the oral occlusive sounds is carried out through the nose, after the nasal cavity has been opened by lowering the velum with the uvula, as is necessary for producing m and n. (Nasal explosion instead of the oral one).

78. Whilst a sound is being articulated, organs of speech not active in forming this sound can simultaneously take the position for the formation of the follow-organism of sounds without explosion. Whilst e. g. m in Mund, Mond, Mann, Münze etc. is being articulated, the tongue, perfectly disengaged, can already take the position for u^2 , o^2 , a^2 , \ddot{u}^2 etc., by which, of course, the oral cavity, the resonance chamber of m, and therefore also its tone is modified.

Such an anticipation takes place, if two occlusive sounds follow upon each other, as in lobte $l\delta^1p^1t^{-1}$, althlug, altpreuszisch, Akte. Here the occlusion of the second consonant is made before the occlusion of the first is opened. The consequence is that in lobte, althlug, where the place of occlusion of the second consonant is situated behind that of the first consonant (the alveolar t behind the bilabial p^1 , and the mediopalatal k behind the alveolar t), the explosion of p^1 (in lobte) and of t (in althlug) is hardly audible; but, when, as in altpreuszisch, Akte, the place of occlusion of the second consonant is situated before that of the first consonant, the explosion of the first occlusive sound (t in altpreuszisch, t in Akte) is completely suppressed.

79. Assimilation too is a result of the tendency to carry out movements of articulation, if possible, only once.

1) If by anticipation movements of articulation Assimilation are transferred to the preceding sound, we have regressive assimilation. So, for instance, in biggt $b\bar{t}^{-1}l_l^{-1}t$, Abt $a^2p^{-1}t$, alt $a^2l_l^{-1}t$ the voicelessness of the t is transferred to the preceding voiced g, b, l; cf. §§ 50, 2. 51, 2. 52, 2. (To make a voiceless consonant voiced by assimilation is repugnant to German.)

It is the effect of regressive assimilation, that before the labiodental f an bilabial m^1 or p^1 becomes labiodental too, as in Dampf $da^2m^2p^2f$, Abfall $zd^2p^2f\dot{a}^2l$, or that Aussch-usz $z\dot{p}^2\varrho^2s\dot{s}\dot{u}^2s$, Kunststück $k\dot{p}\dot{u}^2p\dot{s}\dot{t}\dot{u}^2\dot{k}$ become $z\dot{p}^2\varrho^2\dot{s}\dot{u}^2s$, $k\dot{p}\dot{u}^2\ddot{p}\dot{s}\dot{t}\dot{u}^2\dot{k}$ (cf. §§ 54. 80).

2) If the movements of articulation of one sound are maintained and extended to the following one, we have **progressive assimilation**. Here belong such eases, as $z \le \sqrt{n} e^2 r$, $\sqrt{n} e^2 r$, $\sqrt{$

Owing to the tendency to save movements of articulation we have prepalatal fricatives after the front vowels, but mediopalatal fricatives after the back vowels, for in the former case consonants and vowels have in common the articulations of the front of the tongue, in the latter case the articulations of the back of the tongue, e.g. ich zi^2h^1 , biegen $b\tilde{c}^1jn$, but ach za^2h^2 , bogen $b\tilde{c}^1gn$; ef. §§ 21. 22.

Note. Progressive assimilation can also be extended to the beginning sound of a following word, if it is enclitic, e. g. hast du $h\dot{a}^2st$ $d\dot{u}^1 \rightarrow h\dot{a}^2stt\dot{u} \rightarrow h\dot{a}^2s\dot{t}\dot{u}^1$, hat der Mann $h\dot{a}^2tdv$ $m\dot{a}^2n \rightarrow h\dot{a}^2ttv$ $m\dot{a}^2n \rightarrow h\dot{a}^2tv$ $m\dot{a}^2n$, als sie $2\dot{a}^2ls$ $z\dot{t}^1 \rightarrow 2\dot{a}^2ls\dot{s}\dot{t}^1 \rightarrow 2\dot{a}^2l\dot{s}\dot{s}\dot{t}^1$. But if the second word is stressed, the assimilation is avoided: ha^2st $d\dot{u}^1$, $2a^2ls$ $z\dot{t}^1$.

80. Due to the principle of saving the articulation as much as possible, is also the treatment of double consonants, if they meet in the two parts of a compound or in two words, which are spoken with one accent, of groups of consonants. as in Nottaufe $n\dot{\phi}^1 t h \dot{\phi}^2 \phi^2 f \dot{\phi}^1$ or hast du $h \dot{\alpha}^2 s t \dot{\alpha}^1$. Here we have according to § 54 not two individual f's, but only one long f.

Note. It may be mentioned, that in the colloquial speech

of the educated classes reductions occur which the literary language still refuses to recognise; e.g. the dropping of t in und between two numerals (dreiundfünfzig $dr \partial^2 e^{2z} u^2 n$ $f \dot{u}^2 m^2 f t \dot{s}^i \dot{z}^2 h^i$), or in the unstressed ist (das ist gut $d \dot{a}^2 \dot{s} i^2 \dot{s} g \dot{u}^i t$) or the dropping of d in the unstressed dem (dm) or den (dn): auf dem Tisch $\dot{z} \dot{u}^2 o^2 f m t \dot{h} \dot{u}^2 \dot{s}$, wir gehn in den Garten $u \bar{\imath}^i r g \dot{e}^i n i^2 n n g \dot{a}^2 r \dot{t} n$.

81. We mean by syllable a group of sounds (or a single sound) which is separated from the preceding and the

Definition of syllable; sonoric and dynamic syllables. following group of sounds (or single sound) either 1) by the relatively least sonority (sonoric syllable, Schallsilbe); or 2) by the relatively weakest expiration (dynamic syllable, Expirations-

silbe, Drucksilbe); or 3) by both simultaneously.

1) The sonority is given once for all by the character of the sound. The most sonorous sounds are the vowels, at the head of which is a, as it is pronounced with the widest opening of the mouth (u a u can be pronounced monosyllabic as $u^2a^2u^2$, but both a's in a ua can never become consonants); then follows r, then l, then the nasals, then the voiced fricatives, then the voiced occlusive sounds, then the voiceless fricatives, and lastly the voiceless occlusive sounds. The least sonority is therefore to be found with a ua in u^2 , with renne in n, with Wandel in d, with Apfel in p^2 , spoken: $a^2u^2a^2$, a^2n^2l , a^2n^2l , a^2n^2l , a^2n^2l . Karl a^2n^2l and Halm a^2l show that a^2l has more sonority than a^2l had $a^$

Accordingly the border-line of sonority, marked by under the symbol, lies always in the sound itself; in the occlusive sounds it is formed by the occlusion itself, the soundless pause.

2) The greatest reduction of the force, with which the breath required for speaking is expelled by the lungs, the relatively weakest expiration (the conditions of which are by no means perfectly elucidated yet) is not fixed by the character of a certain sound, but can appear at liberty before, after, or within the sound; for instance, the border of pressure or expiration, marked by -, lies before the consonant in wohne $w\delta^1 - n\delta^1$, after it in Wohnhaus $w\delta^1 - h\delta^2 \rho^2 s$, within the consonant in hatte $h\delta^2 t\delta^1$, which is really an example for

- 3) where border-line of sonority and border-line of expiration coincide.
- 82. The division of syllables in a spoken German word is by no means identical with the more or less arbitrary habit of spelling, e.g. the separation lan-dend according to the German orthography is quite as wrong in uncompountable to the separation land-ing according to the English orthography; in both cases the border-line of the syllables is in d.

We can establish the following rules for the division of syllables in uncompounded German words:

1) In one occlusive sound, or a group of consonants containing one occlusive consonant, the border-line of the syllables lies always in the occlusive sound itself — quite naturally, as during the occlusion the sonority and the expiration are both zero. An occlusive sound therefore belongs to both syllables, separated by the border-line of sonority and the border-line of expiration. E. g. habe $h\dot{a}^2b\partial^4$, hatte $h\dot{a}^2t\partial^4$ (one t; cf. § 53), kämpfe $kh\dot{e}^2m^2p^2f\partial^4$, wandle $w\dot{a}^2ndl\partial^4$, wachsen $w\dot{a}^2ksn$, Herzen $h\dot{e}^2rtsn$, Hexe $h\dot{e}^2ks\partial^4$, Metrum $m\dot{e}^4tp^2m$, Liebling $l\dot{u}^4p^4l\dot{u}^2n$, Labsal $l\dot{u}^2p^4s\dot{a}^2l$, Mädchen $m\dot{e}^2th^4n$, Bündnis $b\dot{u}^2ntn\dot{u}^2s$, Freundschaft $fr\dot{v}^2unt\dot{s}\dot{u}^2ft$, friedlich $fr\dot{v}^4tl\dot{v}^2h^4$, duldsam $d\dot{u}^2lts\dot{u}^2m$. For words the suffixes of which begin with an occlusive sound or an h see § 83.

Note. Strictly speaking, on account of the soundless pause we should expect in any occlusive sound, and so even in p^1 of Pein or in t of Hut, a syllabic boundary: $p^1h\sigma^2g^2n$, $h\bar{u}^1t$, so that in p^1 the making of the occlusion, and in t the opening of the occlusion would form a syllable. That we do not regard Pein and Hut as dissyllable is due to the fact that the making of the occlusion of p^1 is not preceded, and the opening of the occlusion of t is not followed, by a sonant.

2) With two occlusive sounds, or a group of consonants containing two occlusive sounds, the boundary of sonority and expiration lies between them, because in accordance with § 78 the explosion of the first occlusive sound is

reduced to a minimum or quite suppressed; e. g. backte $b\dot{a}^2k \pm t\partial^1$, lobte $l\dot{o}^1p^1 \pm t\partial^1$, wölbte $w\ddot{o}^2lp^1 \pm t\partial^1$.

- 3) With one consonant which is not an occlusive one the syllabic limit (border-line of sonority) lies within it, if a short vowel precedes; but if a long one precedes, the syllabic limit (border-line of expiration) lies before the consonant. E. g. falle $f\dot{\alpha}^2l\partial^1$, but fahle $f\dot{\alpha}^2-l\partial^1$; essen $\dot{c}^2s\eta$, but aszen $\dot{c}\dot{\alpha}^2-s\eta$; Kamme $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\alpha}^2m\partial^1$, but kamen $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\alpha}^2-m\eta$; waschen $\dot{w}\dot{\alpha}^2s\eta$, but wuschen $\dot{w}\dot{\alpha}^1-s\eta$; spreche $\dot{s}\dot{p}^1r\dot{c}^2\dot{h}^1\partial^1$, but Sprache $\dot{s}\dot{p}^1r\dot{\alpha}^2-\dot{h}^2\partial^1$; schaffen $\dot{s}\dot{\alpha}^2f\eta$, but schufen $\dot{s}\dot{\alpha}^1-f\eta$; Finger $f\dot{i}^2n\dot{\gamma}$; Frage $fr\dot{\alpha}^2-g\partial^1$; Franchen $fr\dot{\nu}^2\partial^2-\dot{h}^1\eta$; rauchen $r\dot{\nu}^2\partial^2-\dot{h}^2\eta$.
- 4) With two consonants neither of which is an occlusive sound, the syllabic limit (border-line of expiration) lies between them; e. g. Perle $p^1h\dot{e}^2r$ - $l\partial^1$, arme $\dot{z}\dot{a}^2r$ - $m\partial^1$, helfe $\dot{h}\dot{e}^2l$ - $f\partial^1$, Berge $b\dot{e}^2r$ - $j\partial^1$, lächle $l\dot{e}^2h^1$ - $l\partial^1$, Burschen $b\dot{u}^2r$ - $\dot{s}\eta$, Mannschaft $m\dot{a}^2\eta$ - $\dot{s}\dot{a}^2ft$, Vöglein $f\ddot{o}^1h^1$ - $l\partial^2e^2$, Mannheit $m\dot{a}^2n$ - $h\dot{\partial}^2e^2$, boshaft $b\dot{o}^1s$ - $h\dot{a}^2ft$. In three non-occlusive sounds the syllabic limit (border-line of sonority) lies in the least sonorous sound: Wormser $w\dot{o}^2rmz\gamma$, Kürschner $kh\ddot{u}^2r\dot{s}\eta r$.
- 83. In compounds the syllabic limit (border-line of expiration) lies between the two parts of them; e. g. Haus-hund, Gesyllabic limit birge, Sieg-fried, Bräuti-gam, ver-achten, in compounds. un-artig. In the same way in foreign words, when the speaker has a clear notion of the individual parts of the compound: an-organisch, Anti-christ. But in most cases the speaker is not thinking or is not conscious of the etymological components, and the foreign word is treated according to the rules valid for the simple words; e. g. Subordination $z\dot{u}^2p^{1}\dot{\sigma}^2rd\dot{i}^2n\dot{a}^2t\dot{s}\dot{i}^2\dot{\delta}^1n$ instead of $z\dot{u}^2p^{1-2}\dot{\sigma}^2rd$., In teresse $z\dot{i}^2nt\dot{\sigma}^1r\dot{e}^2s\dot{\sigma}^1$ instead of $z\dot{i}^2nt\dot{\sigma}^1r-z\dot{e}^2s\dot{\sigma}^1$, Monarch $m\dot{\sigma}^1n\dot{a}^2r\dot{h}^1$, Energie $z\dot{e}^2ne^2rg\dot{i}^1$, Abort $z\dot{a}^2b\dot{\sigma}^2rt$ instead of $z\dot{a}^2\dot{p}^{1-2}\dot{\sigma}^2rt$ (miscarriage; but the German Abort is $z\dot{a}^2\dot{p}^{1-2}\dot{\sigma}^2rt$ W. C.).

Also certain German compounds are treated as simple words, viz. compounds, which originally began their second parts with the glottal stop, but have now given it up and begin them with a vowel; they are mentioned in § 28 note 2; e. g. Obacht $\dot{z}\dot{\sigma}^1b\dot{a}^2h^2t$, herein $\dot{h}\dot{\sigma}^1r\dot{\sigma}^2e^2n$, erinnern $z\dot{\sigma}^1r\dot{r}^2nr^n$,

vollenden $fo^2l\dot{e}^2ndy$. So is also treated *Friedrich $fri^idri^2h^i$, *Knoblauch $kno^2bl\dot{v}^2o^2h^2$, *Handschuh $h\dot{a}^2nt\dot{s}\dot{u}^1$ (but Bundschuh $b\dot{u}^2nt\dot{s}\dot{u}^1$) and other quite familiar compounds in which the speaker does not think of their individual components. Especially may be mentioned compounds with a long consonant, discussed in § 54, where the syllabic limit must necessarily fall within the consonant Nottaufe $n\dot{o}^1\bar{t}h\dot{v}^2o^2f\sigma^1$ Schnellläufer $\dot{s}n\dot{e}^2\bar{l}\dot{o}^2\ddot{u}^2fr$.

Note. In the same way are also treated two independent words, if they form one stress-group and the first word ends with the same consonant with which the second begins: hast du $\hbar d^2 s t \dot{u}^1$; kann nicht $k \hbar d^2 \bar{n} i^2 \hbar^1 t$; lauf flink $l \dot{\nu}^2 \varrho^2 f l i^2 \nu k$; nimm | alle | Kraft zu | sammen $k r d^2 f t s \dot{u}^1$. (But in two stress-groups: laut | töne der | Sang $l \dot{\nu}^2 \varrho^2 t t \hbar \dot{\bar{\nu}}^1 n \partial$.) With regard to the division of the syllables, enclitic words beginning with a vowel are treated analogously; e.g. will ich $w i^2 l i^2 \hbar^1$, hat er $\hbar d^2 t \partial^1 r$.

VI. Accentuation.

- 84. With the transition from one syllable to another is usually also combined a change af accent. By accent we mean the degree of force or of pitch with which one or several groups of sounds are pronounced. As every syllable is pronounced with a certain force and a certain pitch, strictly speaking, every syllable has an accent, but in practice (and so in this book too) we ascribe an accent to those syllables only, which are distinguished from other syllables by a special force or special interval of tone.
- 85. From a strictly phonetical point of view we ought to distinguish between:
- Syllable-accent: Stress-group-accent: stress-group-accent: sentence-accent. Word-accent. Word-accent. Within a syllable; e. g. in all $2a^2l$ a^2 , as the more sonorous sound, is pronounced with greater force than l; in the inquiring so? $z\bar{o}^1$ z is spoken with a deeper note than \bar{o}^1 .
- 2) Stress-group-accent which rules the gradation of force and pitch of the individual syllables within a stress-group; e. g. in er kommt | morgen $\partial^1 r k h \delta^2 m^4 t \mid m \delta^2 r j n$ both σ^2 's are pronounced with a greater force and with a higher note than ∂^1 in the first stress-group and n in the second.
- 3) Sentence-accent which governs the gradation of force and pitch of the individual stress-groups within a sentence; e. g. if by the sentence kommt er | morgen? we ask about the time of his arrival, not about the fact of his coming, we pronounce the whole stress-group morgen with a greater force and a higher note than the stress-group kommt er.

For practical purposes, however, it is more convenient to set aside this classification, and to distinguish only between word-accent and sentence-accent; although the words, as shown in § 5, by no means coincide with the stress-groups, nevertheless the division of a sentence into stress-groups mainly depends on the fixed accentuation of the words.

- 86. The distribution of both the word-accent and the sentence-accent is due to three (or four) factors:
- 1) Owing to the rules of grammar certain parts (syllables, words) require a stronger or a weaker accent.

The grammatical, logical (or psychological), and physiological factors in the word-accent and sentence-accent.

- 2) For either logical or psychological sentence-accent. reasons a special emphasis is given to certain parts which in view of the thought or feeling respectively are more important than others for the addressed or for the speaking person.
- 3) In accordance with **physiological** laws we have a tendency to ease the process of breathing in speaking by alternating accentuated with unaccentuated syllables as regularly as possible.

For the word-accent the grammatical factor is the essential one; the grammar fixes the word-accent once for all and states the gradation of the accents in the syllables; e. g. glücklicher, Züfäll. The part played here by the logical or psychological factor is quite infinitesimal. A logical word-accent appears occasionally, in order to express a contrast; e. g. das Kind ist nicht érzögen (educated), sondern vérzögen (spoilt); réàl und ídeàl (else always reál, ideál). A psychological word-accent can be heard from excited persons; e. g. úmsönst hab' ich gelébt. These are three of the rare examples, in which a discrepancy from the normal grammatical accent is produced.

More important for the word-accent is the physiological factor; cf. §§ 90. 93. 95. 100, 3, 4, 7. To this is due that in secondary syllables (prefixes, suffixes, middle syllables) with heavier sounds (gröszerer Lautgehalt), such as long vowels, diphthongs, groups of consonants, a secondary accent appears; for such a syllable causes a greater strain on the expiration than a light syllable with a short vowel, especially i^2 or δ^1 ; cf. §§ 90. 91. Due likewise to a physiological law is the transference of the secondary accent from one secondary syllable to another; cf. §§ 90. 93.

For the sentence-accent the logical or psycho-

logical element is the essential one; the sentence-accent can be shifted, and its object is to increase the intelligibility of an uttered thought or feeling; e. g. ein glücklicher Zúfall fügte es, daszer ihn traf; but welch ein glücklicher Zùfall! In the former sentence Zufall is the more important conception, in the latter glücklich; ef. § 125. Collateral factors, which in determining the distribution of the sentence-accent must not be underrated, are given by grammar (cf. §§ 122—124) and by physiology (cf. § 126).

We may therefore briefly state the difference between word-accent and sentence-accent by saying, that the former is nearly always of a grammatical nature, the latter chiefly of a rhetorical nature. Word-accent and sentence-accent are not antagonists, but the sentence-accent coincides with a word-accent.

87. The accent, marked by ', characterises the force and is called stress (expiratorischer, emphatischer, dynastress and pitch. The physiological explanation of it is that a more energetic impulse of expiration increases the amplitude of the vibrations of the vocal chords, by which are produced greater sound-waves which we perceive acoustically as an increased loudness.

The accent, marked by , characterises the depth or height of a tone and is called pitch (chromatischer, tonischer, musikalischer Accent). The essence of this accent lies in the fact that with a higher tone the velocity of the vibrations of the vocal chords increases.

Both accents exist in any language, only in one language the difference of force, in another the difference of pitch is more prominent. As a louder syllable can be pronounced with a deeper tone, and a lower syllable with a higher tone, pitch and stress need not always fall on the same syllable. E. g. in er kommt morgen mo^2r is spoken with greater stress and higher pitch than the syllable jv; but in kommt er morgen? mo^2r has the stronger, jv the higher accent.

Note. Test: Syllables which, when loudly spoken, are accentuated in different manner, but, when whispered, show the same accent, have pitch. Syllables with which in cold air a cloud of breath is to be seen have stress.

88. The pitch plays in German (as well as in English)

a rather subordinate part. In German it does not serve to distinguish words from each other (as it does in Occurrence Swedish, where e. g. anden means "the duck", of pitch. but anden, with a considerably deeper tone in the first syllable, means "the ghost"), but it finds its principal application as sentence-accent, and that not so much to characterise a thought as a mood or emotion. So e. g. the high key is peculiar to the expressions of pleasant or unpleasant excitement, the deep key to those of resignation, sorrow, and solemnity. In general the maintaining or raising of the tone indicates a continuation of a thought or mood, as c. g. in asking; a thesis indicates a termination, as in an affirmative proposition.

- 89. In word-stress we have to distinguish several degrees of force. The strongest is the principal stress (Hanptacent, erroneously Hochton), indicated by '; we call the less strong stresses, which in grees of word-stress. English, and still more in German, are considerably weaker than the principal stress, secondary stresses (Nebenacent, erroneously Tiefton), indicated by ', or, if it is necessary to distinguish secondary stresses of different force, by ', '', ''' (the weakest). Unstressed (unbetont) is an incorrect term for those syllables which reduce their stress so far that they can only just be perceived; a certain degree of expiration, ever so slight, is required at any rate. Lack of stress is not indicated by any mark. E. g. in Altertumskunde $\frac{\partial^2 It}{\partial t}$ indicated by any mark. E. g. in Altertumskunde $\frac{\partial^2 It}{\partial t}$ the stronger secondary stress, and $\frac{\partial^2 It}{\partial t}$ the principal stress.
- 90. 1) Syllables, containing the vowels ∂^1 , γ , ℓ , η , m may be regarded as stressless; e. g. lobe $l\dot{\phi}^1b\partial^1$, guter $g\dot{u}^1tr$, guten $g\dot{u}^1t\eta$, guten $g\dot{u}^1t\eta$, gutes $g\dot{u}^1t\partial^1s$, Stresslessness. Handel $h\dot{a}^2nd\ell$, Handelshaus $h\dot{a}^2nd\ell sh\dot{v}^2o^2s$, lobend $l\dot{\phi}^1b\eta$, Herzens $h\dot{e}^2rts\eta s$, steinern $st\dot{\phi}^2e^2n\gamma n$.
- 2) Suffixes, containing i^2 , as -ig (freudig), -ich (Fittieh), -icht (steinicht), -isch (kindisch), -lich (kindlich), -zig, -szig (zwanzig, dreiszig), may be treated as stressless.
- 3) The foreign terminations -ŏs, -ŭs, -ŏn, -ŭm in dissyllabie words, e. g. Páthos, Lóndon, Círcus, Métrum cf. § 70, 1; but Léxikòn, Hábitùs etc.

As, however, for physiological reasons, several consecutive unstressed syllables could easily make the speaker breathless,

the tendency exists to a great extent to alternate stressed with unstressed syllables (cf. §§ 93. 95. 100, 3, 4, 7. 126); accordingly, of two consecutive unstressed syllables one receives a secondary stress; e. g. lobte $l\delta^1p^1t\delta^1$, but redete $r\dot{e}^1d\delta^1t\dot{\delta}^1$; handle $\dot{h}\dot{a}^2ndl\delta^1$, but handle $\dot{h}\dot{a}^2ndl\delta^1$; fréudig, but fréudiges Fést and fréudigès Geműt.

91. A secondary stress appears in syllables with heavier sounds, especially with other sounds than those mensecondary tioned in § 90 (a few cases with i^2 are excepted); ef. Jungfer $j\dot{u}^2\nu f_i r$ but Jungfrau $j\dot{u}^2\nu f_i r\dot{\nu}^2 \varrho^2$; Junker $j\dot{u}^2\nu f_i r$ but Jungherr $j\dot{u}^2\nu h\dot{e}^2 r$. In particular a secondary stress appears in the following cases:

- 1) On the suffixes: -sal (Műhsál), -selig (feindsèlig), -and (Héiland), -sehaft (Féindschàft), -sam (héilsam), -bar (dánkbar), -haft (wáhrháft), -at (Héimát), -wärts (rűekwärts); -ut (Aŕmùt) -mund (Léumùnd), -ung (Zéitùng), -tum (Réichtùm); -od (Kléinòd), -öde (Éinòde); -in (Gráfin), -ing (Méssing), -ling (Jångling), -lings (blíndlings), -nis (Zéugnìs), -rieh (Wűterieh); -lein (Kíndlèin), -heit (Schönhèit), -keit (Néuigkèit).
- 2) In isolated words with other vowels than σ^1 and i^2 ; e. g. Éidàm, 'Ahòrn, 'Uhù, 'Arbèit, 'Amèise, Ave $\vec{c}^2w\dot{\vec{e}}^1$; proper names, as Bértà, Húgò, Rigi $ri^1\dot{g}\dot{t}^1$ etc.; ef. § 90, 3.
- 3) On the root-syllable of German words with a foreign termination bearing the principal stress; cf. § 96. E.g. Glåsúr, schättieren, Dròstéi, Hòrnist, Stèlláge etc.
- 4) On the root-syllable of certain German words which have the principal stress on a suffixal syllable; e. g. lèbéndig, lèibháftig, Wàchhólder etc.; ef. § 95.
- 5) If in foreign words the principal stress is preceded (or followed) by more than one syllable, usually a secondary stress falls upon the first (or on the last), e. g. Bibliothék, Phàntasíe, Tèlegráph, Rèdaetéur, Bàronésse etc.; Córridòr, tránsitiv, Cóntinènt etc.
- 6) In foreign words the syllable immediately before the principal stress has a secondary stress, if the etymological value of this syllable is intelligible also to an uninitiated speaker; e.g. Bankier $b\hat{\alpha}^2 \nu k \hat{i}^2 \hat{e}^4$ but Barbier $b\hat{\alpha}^2 r b \hat{i}^4 r$, Export $\hat{c}^2 k s p h \hat{o}^2 r t$ but Examen $\hat{c}^2 k s \hat{\alpha}^2 m n$, incognito $\hat{c}^2 \nu k h \hat{o}^2 \nu n \hat{i}^2 t h \hat{o}^4$ but in fam $\hat{c}^2 m^2 f \hat{\alpha}^2 m$.

- 7) If an independent word is subordinated to another in a compound, its principal stress is reduced to a secondary one; e.g. über and sétzen, but übersètzen "to ferry", and übersétzen "to translate"; Hóf but Kírchhòf. If such a compound word is compounded once more, all the accents are reduced by one degree, e.g. Dórfkirchhôf.
- 92. In general one mark (') for the secondary stress is sufficient; " and " are only used, if in the same word secondary stresses of different degrees appear. But it must be noticed that the sole secondary stress has by no means the same force in all words. The secondary stress is all the stronger, the more remote it is from the preceding or following principal stress. Therefore, Bürgerin or Bürgerinnen has a stronger secondary stress than Gáttin or Gáttinnen; in hérrlichèren Gesáng, there is a stronger secondary stress than in hérrlichèren Sáng. In the same way a secondary stress at the beginning of a sentence is stronger than in the middle of it, as it is not subordinated to a preceding principal stress: in ûnerreicht sind die Táten der Hélden ûn is far more strongly accentuated than in die Táten der Hélden sind ûnerreicht.

Especially strong and bordering on the principal stress is the secondary stress in a group of certain compounds, as blutárm, schwärzweiszrót (§ 101, 4), Südwést (§ 100, 6), urált (§ 104), erzgrób (§ 105).

- 93. The rules for the position of the secondary stress must always be very vague, as in consequence of the rhythmic tendency (cf. § 90) to alternate between stressed and unstressed syllables the secondary stress undergoes great fluctuations. So, e.g. Zéitüngen gelésen can be changed into Zéitungèn gelésen; for Vórùrte'il, Sónnàbend, Hándàrbe'it, bùchsta'bíeren can often be, and is often pronounced Vórurtèil, Sónnabènd, Hándarbèit, bùchstabíeren; and the more familiar such a compound is, the more easily a rhythmic change takes place.
- 94. Whilst there is a certain fluctuation between unstressed syllables and syllables with a secondary stress, a distinct boundary-line can be drawn between these two groups on one side and the syllables with a stress in simple words.

principal stress on the other (with exception of a few compound words, cf. §§ 92. 100. 6. 101, 4).

As in the other Teutonic languages, so also in German the principal stress rests always (the few words only, mentioned in §§ 95 and 96, excepted) on the most significant syllable of the word, the bearer of the meaning, the root-syllable, which in German uncompounded words is identical with the first syllable (with quite sporadic exceptions, as sind, seien, where s represents the root and -ind, -eien are terminations). Accordingly, the same syllable has always the strongest stress. be the number of the following syllables ever so great; e. g. Léid, léiden, Léidenschaft, léidenschaftliche're etc. Transference of the principal stress is Transference of the principal stress is of the principal to be found in quite isolated words, and is to be explained partly by the influence of the analogy of foreign words. Thus the accentuation of *Forelle (instead of Fórèlle), *Hòrnísse (instead of Hórnisse), *Hèrmelin (hè²rmə¹lí¹n instead of Hèrmelin), *lùthérisch (used only in a dogmatical sense; by the side of lutherisch) is due to the influence of Libelle, Tabelle - Coulisse -Bàldachin, Pàladin - homérisch, hystérisch (lat. luthéricus). Partly, however, the deviations are to be explained from a physiological point of view, viz. in those cases where the principal stress would fall on a relatively light syllable and the secondary stress on a relatively heavy one: *Wachholder, *Holunder, *Scharmützel, *schmarotzen, *èléndig $(?\dot{e}^{i}l\dot{e}^{2}ndi^{2}h^{i})$, derived from élènd $?\dot{e}^{i}l\dot{e}^{2}nt)$, *lèbéndig $(l\dot{e}b\dot{e}^2ndi^2h^1$, derived from lébend, instead of the older

In some cases other reasons have produced the transference of the accents; so especially in adjectives which are derived from compounds: *àbschéulich (from 'Abschèu), *bùchstáblich (from Búchstàbe), *vòrzüglich from Vórzùg), *gègenwärtig (from Gégenwärt), *miszbräuchlich (from Miszbräuch), *etwäig (from étwä); and also the following adjectives, which, however, in emphasis can retain their original accentuation: *wàhrháftig, *lèibháftig, *tèilháftig (by the side of wáhrháft, léibháft, tèilháft), *àugenblicklich (from 'Augenblick), *ursprünglich (from

lébèndig); so also in the derivatives *scharwénzeln or *scherwénzeln (to cringe and fawn); ef. also § 100, 2, 3, 4.

'Ursprung), *èigentümlich (from 'Eigentum), *àbsichtlich (from 'Absicht), *währscheinlich, *òffenbar.

96. A transference of the principal stress from the rootsyllable of a German word to the foreign suffix takes place. if the suffix in the language from which it is bor-The principal rowed has the accent: -age (Stellage štela2žo1, stress on foreign suffixes Tàkeláge thở 2kllá 2žo1: -ant (Pàukánt, Lìefeof German words. ránt); -alien (Làppálien); -ist (Hòrníst, Härfenist); -ieren (hälbieren, stölzieren); -ei (Drückeréi, Dròstéi); -aner (Wèimaráner, Wagnerianer); -enser (Bàdénser, Jènénser); -ur (Glàsúr ala2zú1r); -os (bùrschikós $bu^2r \dot{s}i^2kh\dot{\phi}^1s$); -ier (Kneipier $kn\dot{\phi}^2e^2p^1i^2\dot{\phi}^1$, Rentier $r\dot{e}^2nti^2\dot{e}^1$). Notice also Klèinódien, beside the German form

Only *Schléndriàn and *Gróbiàn are excepted, and the formations (originally juxtapositions; ef. § 113) with -lei, as dréierlèi, vielerlèi, éinerlèi (but this word is accentuated èinerléi, if it means "indifferent").

Kléinode.

Hybrid formations in which a German ending is added to a foreign word are treated in connexion with the accentuation of the loan-words; cf. § 120.

97. From the accentuation of derived words the accentuation of compounds is to be separated, although the distinction between them is often not easy, because some original compounds have the appearance of derivatives, e. g. Júnker (— Júnghèrr). For practical reasons it is convenient to regard a word as no longer compound, if the second part of it

has ceased to appear as an independent word (as e.g. Schönheit, Rittertum, fruchtbar; cf § 83).

Also derivatives from compounds must not be treated as compounds; e.g. hándhàben is no compound, consisting of Hand + haben, but is derived from the nominal compound Hándhàbe; in the same manner 'Unterschéidùng is no compound, consisting of unter + Scheidung, but is derived from the verbal compound ùnterschéiden.

Furthermore we must carefully distinguish between a compound (Zusammensetzung) of two parts, the first of which is the pure uninflected stem, and a juxtaposition (Zusammenrückung) of inflected words, like Vergiszmein-

nicht, 'Allerséelentàg. A juxtaposition can consist of any number of elements; but a compound contains two, which, however, on their part can consist of compounds. E.g. Nordsë eschiff à hrt is not compounded of Nord + See + Schiff + Fahrt, but of Nordsee + Schiffahrt.

Note. Only a copulative compound (dwandwam) can consist of more than two coordinate parts, e. g. schwarzwèiszrót, cf. § 101, 5.

In a compound only one syllable keeps its principal stress: the other syllables subordinate their accents as secondary stresses: Nordsë eschiffà hrt; cf. § 91, 7. (Very few compounds can have two principal stresses, cf. §§ 92. 100, 6. 101, 4, 5, 104, 105.)

Derivatives from compounds retain the accent of the compound: 'Unterschéidung like unterschéiden, handhàben like Hándhàbe (a few exceptions in § 95).

Juxtapositions have the sentence-stress throughout, e.g. Vergiszmeinnicht; cf. § 110.

The fundamental law for the position of the principal stress in compounds is:

pound.

Compounds the second part of which is a no-Principal stress on the stress on the first part in a men i. e. noun, adjective, adjective-adverb, or numominal compounds on the second part in a verbal compart of which is a verbum (verbal compounds)

have the principal stress on the second part.

E. g. Dürchstich - dürchsteche; Miszgünst miszgőnne; 'Unterschied - ûnterschéide; Wídersprùch - widerspréche: 'Urlàub - erlaube (beúrlàube, Erláubnis are derivatives); úngèrn; dréizèhn.

This law, originating from Primitive Teutonic times, is often disturbed by analogy, as the verbal and nominal compounds influence each other; cf. §§ 102. 107. 109. Some words, like *unterrichte (which is derived from 'Unterricht, and therefore ought to have the same accentuation as the noun), and the infinitive *miszfállen (which was identical with the noun das *Miszfallen) are especially remarkable.

The nominal compounds consisting of nomen + nomen in general observe the old law; e.g. Háusvàter, Grószvàter, rósenròt, áltklug. The idea of this accentuation is, to give the principal stress to the qualifying word, Nomen+the secondary stress to the qualified word. The exceptions to this rule are to be treated in two divisions:

1) nomen+noun; 2) nomen+adjective.

- 100. If the first part is a nomen and the second a noun, the principal accent lies on the second part in the following cases (partly arisen from old juxtapositions):
- 1) ln certain geographical names compounded Nomen+with-hafen, -haven (Brèmerháfen, Cùxháven), noun-münde (Wàrneminde), -hausen (Sàchsenháusen), -walde (Rügenwálde), -holm (Stockhólm), -felden (Rhèinfélden), -dam ('Amsterdám, Ròtterdám), -sund Stràlsúnd), -wört (Dònà'uwö'rt), -werder (Marien-wérder), -hagen (Kòpenhágen), -brunn, -bronn, -born (Sehö'nbrúnn, Hèilbrónn, Pàderbórn), -lautern (Kàisersláutern), -see (Wèiszensée), -förde ('Eckernfö'rde), -reut (Bàiréut), -rode, -roda (Osterróde, Friedrichródà), -ruh(e) (Friedrichsrúh, Kàrlsrúhe), -grätz (Kö'niggrä'tz).
- 2) In geographical names the first part of which is alt, neu, grosz, klein, Nord, Süd, Ost, West; e.g. 'Alténgland, Nèufundland, Gròszbritánnien, Klèinásien, Nòrdamérika, Sü'dfránkrèich, Wèstfálen, 'Ostíndien, Sü'dóst, Nòrdwést.

But there are some words which adhere to the old rule, e. g. Nórddèutschländ, Súdschweiz, 'Ostprèuszen, Westprèuszen. The principal stress always remains on the first part, if a contrast is to be expressed between two compounds having an identical second part: Nórdamèrikä, nicht Súdamèrikä.

3) In certain expressions of time: Palmsónntag, 'Ostersónntag, Pfingstmóntag, Blaumóntag (but Rósenmóntag), 'Aschermíttwóch, Grü'ndónnerstag, Karfréitag (but Kárwóche), Fröhnléichnam. (Jahrhúndert and other words with Jahr are mentioned under juxtapositions § 111.)

In those names where the second part consists of a compound, rhythmic-physiological tendencies have made themselves felt: Pálmsónntäg has become Pálmsónntäg and so an alternation between weak and strong stresses was obtained.

4) In some titles, in which partly the same explanation

is applicable, such as Schlòszháuptmànn, Krèisháuptmànn, Fèldmárschàll; e. g. Schlòszháuptmànn has become Schlòszháuptmànn.

But also in compounds with ober: 'Oberámtmànn, 'Oberfórstmèister, 'Oberstléutnànt; the old rule is observed in *'Oberlèhrer, *'Oberlèutnànt, and especially in those words which can be combined with unter also: 'Oberpfàrrer — 'Unterpfàrrer.

- 5) In Old-Teutonic names, especially if they contain three or more syllables, the Latin accentuation was customary; e.g. 'Alemánne, Långobárden, Vàndálen, Wàlhállà, Wàlküre, Brùnhilde, Gèrtrúde, Kùnigúnde (but without e: Brúnhild, Gértrúd, Kúnigùnd). Now the general trend is to restore the genuine Teutonic accentuation: therefore Lángobárden, Vándálen, Wálhállà, Wálkü're etc.
- 6) In compounds, such as Bàselstádt, Königin-mútter, as well as in modern copulative compounds, e.g. Schlèswig-Hólstèin, Hèssen-Nássàu, Östrèich-'Ungàrn, where the secondary stress comes very near in force to the principal stress, there appear sometimes really two principal stresses; cf. §§ 101, 4, 5. 104. 105. Words with this level stress (schwebende Betonung) are pronounced with a pause between the two stressed parts; e.g. the emphatic exclamation das ist | búch-|stä'blich| wáhr instead of the usual bùchstä'blich.
- 7) In isolated words, such as *Schlaraffe, *Pfèfferminze. In *Hèrzliebchen, *Hèrzliebster the change of the stresses is due to the fact that here Herz does not qualify, but only strengthens (cf. § 101, 4). In *Allgüte, *Allgegenwart, *Allwissenhèit, *Allmende we have again to recognise the effect of the physiological-rhythmic factor.
- 101. In the group nómen+àdjective a change to nòmen+àdjective has been carried out in:
- Nomen+ adjective compounded with the intensive all; adjective e.g. allmathlich, allein, allgemein, alltaglich, allmathlig (whilst the nouns, with few exceptions, cf. § 100, 7, have the principal stress on all, e.g. Allmacht). Exceptions are *allseitig (here all is qualifying, not strengthening) and *allgemach; albern (-O. H. G. ala-wāri) is not felt any longer as compound.
 - 2) Isolated words: the four participles *willkommen,

*vòllkómmen, *lèibéigen, *hèrzéigen (cf. § 109); *bàrmhérzig, *drèiéinig, *drèifaltig (if it means "triune"; but dréifaltig = threefold). 'Augenblicklich, èigentümlich are no compounds, but derivatives; cf. § 95.

3) Certain compounds with alt, such as altindisch, altpersisch, altsächsisch, altnordisch etc., if the name of the language or nation itself, and not a certain period is to be indicated; in the latter case the regular accentuation is maintained; e.g. altindisch forms a contrast to altpersisch, altgriechisch etc. but altindisch to neuindisch.

*'Althochdëutsch and *áltfrä'nkisch (= obsolete) have always the principal stress on alt.

- 4) Adjectives compounded with a noun or adjective which does not qualify the meaning of the second part but only strengthens it. E. g. blùtárm (very poor, but blútárm anaemic) stèinréich (very rich, but stéinrèich stony), pèchschwarz, stòckdumm, mènschenmöglich, grundhä'szlich, màusetót, krèuzbráv, spöttschlécht, fèderléicht, sonnenklár, blitzbláu, knállrót; bitterkált, hòchféin, wildfrémd, wòhlwéise, gròszmächtig etc. In these compounds, however, the secondary stress, which is here very strong, can become so reinforced, that we obtain a level accentuation (cf. § 100, 6): stéinréich, stóck dúm m. If a termination is added to compounds of this sort, either the level accentuation remains: ein blutarmes Kind (only = a very poor child), or the first part receives the principal stress, the second part the secondary stress: ein blutarmes Kind, which accordingly can mean either a very poor child or an anaemic child.
- 5) In the same manner are treated the copulative compounds; e.g. schwärzweisz or schwärzweisz (black and white), schwärzweiszrót or schwärzweiszrót, deutschfränzösisch or deutschfränzösisch.

Note. In the names of colours we have to distinguish between the copulative compounds (e.g. ròt wéisz or ròt-wéisz = red and white) and the compounds with a first intensifying part (e.g. knàllrót or knállrót = fiery red) on one side, and on the other side the compounds the first parts of which indicate a special shade (e.g. rót wèisz = reddish white, gráublàu greyish blue, hím melblàu blue like the skye).

The compounds with hell or licht and dunkel are accentuated like the intensive compounds (e.g. hèllblåu or héllblåu), unless the contrast between hell and dunkel is to be emphasised; in which case the original accentuation appears héllblåu, nicht dúnkelblåu.

102. The number of the compounds consisting of a prefix and a nomen which observe the old rule (such as 'Antwort, 'Urtèil, 'Ursprung, Miszbruuch, Miszwachs)

Prefix+nomen in general. Supplanting of the nominal accentuation by the verbal. their reduced state (e. g. ent- instead of ant-, by the verbal. er- instead of ur- etc.) and the verbal accentuation has been introduced. This is the case with the compounds containing the prefixes be-, ge-, ent- (emp-), er-, ver-, zer-; e. g. Beginn, Bestand (but Béistand), Betrag (but Béitràg), Gebót, Entsatz, Empfang, Erlasz, Verdacht, Zerfall. (Nouns which are positively or analogically derived from verbal compounds, like Beginner, Erlassung, must not be taken into account here.)

The influence of the verb is also to be seen in the accentuation of participles and infinitives containing in their first part a prefix, for both are nominal, not verbal formations, as they are declined, not conjugated. There are only very few participles combined with a prefix which have retained the nominal accentuation: *úntertàn (but ûntergében; both = subject, dependent). A few others in §§ 106, I 4, II 2; ef. also §§ 103. 107, 3. 109.

For other reasons some isolated adjectives have transferred their principal accent to the second part: *àbsóuderlich, *vòrtréfflich, *hìnlä'nglich, *àusführlich, *àusgezéichnet (excellent, but áusgezèichnet = marked out,, *àuszerórdentlich (= extraordinary, uncommon; but áuszerórdentlicher Professor = Reader). 'Absíchtlich, gègenwä'rtig etc. are not compounds, but derivatives; cf. § 95.

103. The nominal compounds with misz-have observed the rule, e. g. Miszbräuch, Miszgunst, Miszmut, Miszmut, Miszmut, bildüng etc.; Miszhándlung is a derivative from nomen miszhándle. The part and infin follow the accentuation of the verb: miszbráuchen, miszbráucht etc.; words, like miszgeläunt, miszgeärtet, miszgeächtet,

míszgestältet are, however, not to be regarded as participles of miszláune (which does not exist), miszárte, miszáchte, míszgestälte, but are combinations of misz- and independent words, like übel-geláunt, übel-geártet, wóhlgestältet, hóch-geáchtet.

104. The nouns compounded with ur- and their derivatives have the principal stress upon ur-; e. g. 'Urtèil, 'Ursprung, 'Ursàche, 'Urkunde; *úrsächlich, *úrkundlich. Likewise the adjective *úrbàr. For the deriva- Ur+nomen. tive *úrsprunglich cf. \$ 95.

All the other adjectives with ur-show precisely the same accentuation and peculiarities as the adjectives with an intensifying first part, like blùtårm: ùrált or úrált, ùrdéutsch or úrdéutsch; but der úrálte Baum or der úrálte Baum. Cf. § 101, 4.

105. The foreign prefix erz- (from the Greek archi-) has the secondary stress in compounds with an offensive meaning: 'Erzschúrke, 'Erzbetrüger, èrzgrób, Erz+nomen. èrzfául etc. The words ean also be pronounced with a level stress, as the secondary stress is here very strong, and the adjectives are treated quite as blùtárm, ef. § 101, 4.

In compounds with good meanings and especially in titles erz- has the principal stress: 'Erzèngel, 'Erzbischöf, 'Erzhèrzög etc. In 'Erzgebirge ist Erz a noun (= ore).

106. I. The prefix un- has the principal stress:

1) If the second part is a noun: 'Unmensch, 'Untiefe; 'Unnatur, 'Ungefähr (chance), 'Ungehèuer (monster) etc.

2) If the second part is an adjective or Un+nomen. adverb not derived from a verb: úngèrn, úndèutsch, úntrèu, únmä'szig, únfrèundlich, únvòrteilhà'ft, únverstä'ndlich, únsichtbà'r (invisible, from Sicht) etc.

Exceptions: *unéndlich, *ungeméin, *unwillkűrlich, *unmittelbár, *unverzüglich, *unéingedenk, *ungefähr (approximately), *ungehéuer, *unménschlich (enormous).

3) If the second part is an adjective derived from a verb with the suffix -lich or -sam and has an active meaning: únzìemlich, únerfrèulich, únwirksàm, únfòlgsàm etc.

Exceptions: *unsterblich, *unaufhörlich.

- 4) If the second part is a present participle: ún-wissend, únbefriedigënd, úngenügend etc.
 - II. The prefix un- has the secondary stress:
- 1) If the second part is an adjective derived from a verb with the suffix -lich, -bar, -ig, -sam, -haft and has a passive meaning: unberéchenbar, unlésbar, unnáhbar, unsíchtbar (from sichten to sift), unságbar, unsäglich, unverzéihlich, unentgéltlich, unzählig, untádlig, unzweifelhaft, unaufháltsam; and with an active meaning *unféhlbar.

Exceptions, as ún bràuch bà'r, ún dèutlich, ún ü'blich, ún kènntlich, ún bà'n dig (but as adverb in colloquial speech ùn bà'n dig = excessively, awfully) are treated after 13. Besides, it must be noted that the compounds of this group show a general tendency to shift their accents, when an ending is added, e.g. ein únlès bà'res Buch.

2) If the second part contains a passive participle: unbekléidet, ungelogen, unbefriedigt, unentwegt, unverséhens etc.

Here we have many exceptions. In general, these participles too show the tendency to place the chief stress on un-, if an ending is added, e. g. únbefriedigter Ehrgeiz.

In many cases the second part is no longer felt as a participle, but as an adjective, as e.g. únbesonnen, únbeliebt, únbekannt, únbelèsen, únentschlössen, úngelègen, because besonnen means prudent, beliebt popular, bekannt well known, belesen well read, learned, entschlossen resolute, gelegen convenient; other cases are únbehölfen, únbeschadet

In general, we can say, if a participle is detached from the living verbal forms, either by its form or by a peculiar development of its meaning, it is regarded as a mere adjective and has therefore the principal stress on un-;

e. g. ungeachtet (not respected), but ungeachtet (notwithstanding);

ungestältet (not shaped), but ungestält (ill shaped); ungehälten (not held), but ungehälten (indignant); ungezwungen (not forced), but ungezwungen (unaffected); ungeråten (unguessed), but ungeråten (degenerated); ungebildet (not formed), but ungebildet (uneducated); ungeréimt (unrhymed), but ungerèimt (absurd).

Note. Spoken in excitement, un- can assume the principal stress in any case, e. g. unverzeihlich.

- 107. The verbal compounds are throughout faithful to the old law and show the principal stress on the second part: Miszgünst miszgö'nne, 'Unterhalt unterhalte, Widerspruch widerspreche, Durchstich Verbal compounds durchsteche, 'Überschläg über- in general. schläge etc. This rule is violated only in appearance, for we have to discard:
- 1) All the verbs derived from nominal compounds, like úrtèile (from 'Urtèil), ántwòrte (from 'Antwòrt), wállfährte (from Wállfährt), frühstü'eke (from Frühstü'ek), wéissäge (from the O. H. G. simple word wîzzago prophet). Some of them betray themselves as derivatives at once by their weak eonjugation, e. g. héiràte, rátschläge, rádebrèche, hándhäbe (imperf. hándhäbte).
- 2) All the juxtapositions, which are distinguished from the verbal compounds by the fact that in certain forms the first part is separated from the verb, e. g. téilnèhmen, státtfinden, áchtgèben, tótschlàgen, wáhrsågen, and all the sham compounds with prepositions, or rather adverbs. That áussprèchen, ánsågen, vórführen etc. are written as single words is quite conventional and of recent origin, for both parts are perfectly independent words and show the sentence-stress, not the word-stress; and áussprèchen, ich sprèche áus is entirely equivalent to a verb with any adverb, e. g. schnéll sprèchen, ich sprèche schnéll.
- 3) All the compounds the second part of which is a participle, e.g. frúchtbringend, wónnetrúnken, for a participle is a nominal, not a verbal form; but nearly all the participles with a prefix have been attracted by the verbs and show their accentuation, cf. § 102.
- 108. The compounds with be-, ge-, ent- (emp-), er-, ver-, zer- have always the principal stress on the verbal element, without even any apparent exception, e.g. be-géhn, vergéhn, ergéhn, zergéhn, entgéhn etc.

 The principal stress rests also on the second part in the com-

pounds with durch- (dùrchréisen to traverse), über- (übersétzen to translate), um- (ùmstéllen to surround), hinter-(hintertréiben to thwart), unter- (ùnterzéichnen to sign), wider- (widerlégen to confute), spelt with ie only in wiederhólen (to repeat) and in wiederhérstèllen (to restitute).

(Dúrchrèisen to pass through, übersètzen to ferry, úmstèllen to transpose, hintertrèiben to drive behind, únterzèichnen to draw under, wiederlègen to lay again are no compounds, but juxtapositions, which mostly retain the original conerete meaning; cf. § 107, 2.)

The compounds with misz observe the rule in general, e. g. miszhándeln, miszáchten, miszárten, miszráten; but mísztún and míszwóllen are probably analogical formations after the juxtapositions wóhltún, wóhlwóllen. The principial stress lies on misz- in those verbs which are already compounded with an inseparable prefix; e. g. míszbehágen, míszgefállen (better is miszfállen), míszverstéhen, míszgebären. For the participles míszgeáchtet and míszgeártet, by the side of the more usual miszáchtet and miszártet, ef. § 103.

109. Nomina as first parts of verbal compounds do not very often appear; the principal stress is generally on the verb, Nomen+ verb. as in völlbringen, völlfüllen (to fulfill), völlführen, völlénden, völlziehn, völlstrécken, willfähren; völlkömmen and willkömmen are old participles and can also assume the nominal accentuation: völlkömmen, willkömmen (ef. § 101, 2). (Völlfü'llen to fill full, völlschrèiben and other words with the principal stress on voll are juxtapositions.)

Lùstwándeln, fröhlócken (a popular etymology, possibly a derivative from a compound noun vröleich, song of rejoicing), lòbsingen, lòbpréisen have mostly the verbal accentuation; but liebkòsen and liebäugeln prefer the principal stress on the first part.

110. Whilst in most compounds the first part originally represents the pure stem without any termination, and the compounds go back to old times or are at least formed after old models, the comparatively young juxtapositions or conglomerations (Zusammenrückungen) consist of the inflected words of a sentence and

retain the sentence-stress, as they have arisen from syntaetical phrases. E.g. Vergiszmeinnicht has about the same accentuation as verlász mich nicht, Lebewohl schlafe wohl. Hanswurst as Hans Sachs, 'Allerséelentág as àller Fréuden 'Ende, áusfahren as schnéll fahren, der Höhepriester as der grösze Kö'nig, 'Einmaléins as drèi mal fünf, Göttseibéiùns (Old Nick) as blèibe béi uns, vorderhand as vor der Tür.

111. Bimembral juxtapositions have, as a rule, the

principal stress on the second part; but in verbal bimembral juxtapositions the principal stress rests on the adverbial element, which usually forms the first part juxtapositions of the juxtaposition. E. g. Langeweile, Gott- cipal stress on lób, Våterúnser, Höhenzóllern (dat. plur.), Vierteljáhr, Jáhrhúndert and Jáhrtáusend (Jahr is here the old nom, plur, or perhaps a mutilated partitive gen. plur.), Siebenbürgen, anderthalb, ällerörten, abhanden, beiseite, zufrieden, vorhanden, stròmáb, bèrgán, àllerliebst, fü'rwáhr, zùgúte, insgeméin, linksúm, vielléicht, zùnä'chst, obgléich, trotz-

dém, àlsdánn, wòhlán, hìnáuf ctc.

Bimembral the second part; verbal ones on the adverbial ele-

'Abfähren (like räsch fähren), stättfinden gleich finden), and so in a huge number of examples. Verbal juxtapositions with the adverbial element in the second place are rare: Lèbewóhl, Lèbehoch (cf. lèbe glücklich). 112. There are a few verbal juxtapositions, which have

the principal stress on the verb and therefore deviate from the accentuation of the sentence: *Táugenichts Verbal juxta-(good-for-nothing, accentuated as sentence tauge positions with the principal níchts), *Túnichtgùt (never-do-well, as sentence stress on the verb. tù ni cht gút), *Stélldichèin (appointment, as sentence stèll dich éin), *Rührmichnichtan (touch-me-not, as sentence rühr mich nicht an), *Luginsland (watch tower, as sentence lug ins Lánd), *Springinsfeld (harum scarum), *Sáufàus (drunkard), *Páckàn (bobby; large dog), *Léberècht.

113. Of juxtapositions containing a nomen as second part there exist a number which have the principal stress on the first, and the secondary stress on the second Nominal juxtapart: ending in -seit, -seits (éinersèits, jén- positions with a secondary stress on the sèit(s), diessèit(s), ábsèits); in -teils (éineslast part.

tèils, méistentèils, but also mèistentéils, méinestèils); in -halb (déshàlb, áuszerhàlb); in -zeit (dérzèit, jéderzèit or jèderzéit); in -hand (réchterhand, állerhand or àllerhand); in -mal, -mals, -malen (dréimal, jédesmal, éhemals, náchmals, dérmalen); in -rücks (hinterrücks). The juxtapositions ending in -halben, -halber, -halb. -willen, -weise, -dings, -art, -maszen, -gestalt, -wegen have the principal stress on the first part, if this is emphatic or contains a noun: e.g. béispielswèise, ordnungshalber. méinetwègen (in the contrast to déinetwègen), déshàlb, déràrt, dérmàszen, dérgestàlt. But the principal stress rests on the second part, if an adjective or unemphatic pronoun precedes: e. g. glèicherwéise, èinigermászen, allerdíngs, mèinetwégen, mèinethálben, dèshálb, wèshálb etc. For juxtapositions containing the petrified foreign noun -lei ef. § 96.

In general we can say that the principal stress is especially prone to rest on the first part, if the word is spoken with emphasis; e. g. éinmàl (forming the contrast to méhreremàl) but einmál, as in es war einmal $(2 \sigma^1 n m \dot{\alpha}^2 l)$ ein König; állerhànd emphatic, but állerhánd unemphatic.

In addition to these categories we have some isolated nominal juxtapositions with the principal stress on the first part *vórlieb, *fürlieb (but also fü'rlieb), *Hérrgòtt, *víertel, (\leftarrow vierte Teil), *Mitternàcht (\leftarrow M. H. G. ze mitter naht), *Wéihnàchten (\leftarrow M. H. G. ze wîhen nahten), *Mittàg (\leftarrow mitte Tag), Hálbmònd, Hálbjáhr, Hálbbrüder.

114. Juxtapositions containing a numeral as last part have the principal stress on it; e.g. Jährtäusend, Jähr
Juxtapositions hundert, Jährzehnt, selbzwö'lft, selbänder, dreiaehtel, vierunddreiszig, siebentäusend, dreihundertfü'nfundsechzig. But there is a tendency to retract the principal stress, if they are used as attributives, e.g. vierunddreiszig Mark, siebeutäusend Mann, dreihundertfünfundsechzig Tage.

Note. The numbers from dréizèhn to néunzèhn and the tens, such as zwánzig, dréiszig, víerzig etc. are real old nominal compounds and have therefore always their principal stress on the first part; as the latter numbers are

not any longer felt as compounds, they have lost their secondary stress.

115. Pronouns, as last parts of juxtapositions, have either the principal stress, as dinander, derselbe, derselbige, or the secondary stress, as derjenige, Juxtapositions jedermann, jemand, niemand, jedweder (or with pronouns jedweder). Pronomina governed by a preposition have the principal stress, e. g. unterdés, tiberdies, trotzdém, durchéinander, indém, although occasionally in strong emphasis the principal stress can be retracted.

116. The overwhelming majority of juxtapositions which contain an indeclinable word as second part have throughout the principal accent on it. E.g. bergáb, vorbéi, Juxtapositions zweifelsóhne, beináhe, demnách, bishér, with indeclinabilia as last sofórt, alsbáld, obschón, gegenüber, hin-

áus, glèichwóhl etc.

Exceptions are: *ébenső, *álső, *állzű, *úmső, *déstő, *gléichsàm, *dénnőch, *fürbàsz, *übermőrgen, *vórgèstern, and the juxtapositions with sonst and anders as first parts, e. g. sónstwő, ánderswő.

The juxtapositions with hin as last part vary (e. g. férnerhin, létzthin or férnerhín, lètzthín).

Juxtapositions the first part of which contains da, hier, wo or a pronoun retract the principal stress, if they are emphatic (as is occasionally the case also with other juxtapositions, e. g. béinàhe instead of the ordinary bèináhe): dámit (with that), dáhin (to that place), hiermit, wóvòn, démnàch etc. are the forms used in strong emphasis for the ordinary dàmit (with it, in order to), dàhin (thither), hiermit, wòvón, dèmnách etc.

117. Loan-words or foreign words (Lehnwörter, Fremdwörter) either adapt themselves to the German accen-

tuation or keep the foreign accent.

In accordance with German usage, i. e. on with retracted the first syllable, are accentuated those foreign words which found reception already in the O. H. G. period and are quite germanised as to their form (loan-words); e.g. Münster (monastérium), Münze (monéta), Kéller (cellárium), Kirche (kyriaké), prédigen (praedicáre), 'Abentèner (adventúra).

In the real foreign words, which have maintained their original form more faithfully, it is comparatively seldom that a retraction of the principal accent takes place; so e. g. grammatical terms, such as 'Adjectiv, Súbstantiv, Nóminativ, Síngulàr, Plúràl, Pássiv, Plúsquamperfèctum, 'Imperfèkt etc. (but always Futúrum); Fébruàr, Jánuar, 'Oriènt, 'Occidènt.

Some vary: 'Objekt and Objekt, Súbjekt and Subjekt (always Subjekt, if it is = seamp); 'Infanterie, 'Artillerie, Cávallerie besides 'Infanterie etc. Palást (sometimes Pálàst); Panier (bannière; but more germanised Bánner, Low Latin banerium).

In foreign proper nouns the accent is often retracted: Móritz (Maurítius), Níkolàus, Kónstantin, 'Augúst (= Augústus; but Augúst = name of the month).

118. The overwhelming bulk of foreign words which found reception in the language mostly only in N. H. G. times in general keep the accent which they possessed in that language from which the German language has borrowed them — not that accent which they had in the language to which they originally belonged; therefore e. g. Påradígmå, 'Alexánder, not Parádeigmå, Aléxandròs, as Greek words have been introduced into German chiefly through the instrumentality of Latin.

Latin words have been borrowed by the German language either directly, therefore e. g. geniál $g\dot{e}^1n\dot{i}^2\dot{a}^2l$ (geniális), Státuè $\dot{s}t\dot{a}^2t\dot{u}^1\dot{e}^1$ (státua), Lógik $l\delta^1g\dot{i}^2\dot{k}$ (latinised lógica, Greek logiké); or through the instrumentality of the newer Romance languages, especially French, therefore e. g. Genie $z\dot{e}^1n\dot{t}^1$ (génie), Statúe $s\dot{t}\dot{a}^2t\dot{h}\dot{\bar{u}}^1$ (statue), Musik $m\dot{u}^1z\dot{t}^1\dot{k}$ (musique — Latin música — Greek mousiké).

The compound foreign words too keep their foreign accent, e. g. Sùbscription, Chronométer, 'Architékt, pèrmanént, Parábel.

Comparatively few foreign compounds exist in which an ordinary speaker is conscious of their individual elements, and which in consequence are treated like the German nominal compounds. (Verbal compounds are out of the question, as practically all the foreign verbs end in -ieren.) E. g. Premiérlèutnà nt, Cóntreà dmiràl, Cónrèctör, 'Archi-

diákonůs (cf. German Gégenkö'nig, Mítschü'ler etc.); in the same way the compounds with the privative in- (im-, il-), such as índirèct, ímpërsonàl, íllëgetim (cf. Germ. úngèrn, úngesètzlich etc.); on the other hand intáct, as an adjective tact does not exist and an ordinary speaker has no consciousness of the fact that the word is a compound.

119. The following list for the accentuation of the most common foreign words differs in some respects from that given by Hempl. Following his example, I The principal ends of foreign or suffixes — of the words in their alphabetical ends of foreign words and their order, without regard to their etymology — the only convenient form, in view of the extremely various formations of the foreign words, belonging, as they do, to the most different languages.

-ade -å2də1: Balláde, Chòkoláde.

-age -å²żə¹: Pàsságe, Dràináge.

-ai -á2g2: Lakái.

-aise -é²zə¹: Angláise, Màrseilláise.

-al å²l: Local, Moral, General, vertical, fatal, central, final, feudal.

 $-\dot{a}^2l$: *Plúràl.

-à2l: *Kárnevál, *Pórtugál.

-ale -d2lo1: Spirále, Sandále, Finále, Unciále.

-all -d²l: Metáll, Kristáll; but *Márscháll and *Séneseháll are German words.

-alle $-\dot{a}^2l\partial^1$: Korálle.

-am $-\dot{a}^2m$: Bálsàm, Bísàm.

-an -å²n: humán, Orgán, Merán, Titán, spontán.

-à²n: *Ocean, *Páviàn, *Sátàn, *Súltàn, *Dívàn, *Chárlatàn, *Christiàn.

-än -ē²n: Kàpitä'n.

-ance - 429: Alliánee, Distánce.

-ande -á2ndo1: Guirlánde.

-ane -å²nə¹: Chikáne, Kàrawáne, Membráne.

-äne -é2nə1: Fontä'ne, Domä'ne.

-aner -ang: Spartaner, Primaner, Indianer, Lutheraner.

-ann -á2n: Tyránn.

-ant -áºnt: èlegánt, Diamánt, Èlefánt, vakánt, prägnánt, àmüsánt. -à2nt: *Cónsonant, *Léutnant, *Démant.

-a2: Restaurant, Elegant.

-anz -á²nṭṣ: Substánz, Instánz, Vakánz, 'Arrogánz.

-à2nts: *Firlefanz, *Popanz.

-anze -á²ntṣə¹: Románze.

-a²f: *Séraph.

-ar -å²r: Barbár, Husár, Altár, Vikár. -å²r: *Jánuàr, *Fébruàr, *Singulàr.

·à2r: *Néktàr, *Káviàr, *'Altàr (and Altár).

-är -ē2r: pòpulä'r, vulgä'r, Militä'r.

-ard -a2rt: Lèopard, Savoyard, Hazard.

-à2rt: *Bástàrd, *Billiàrd.

-arde $-\dot{a}^2rd\partial^4$: Mansárde.

-as, -asz ·a²ṣ: 'Atlas, Kómpasz, Kűrasz.

-asse -á²ṣə¹: Grimásse, Terrásse.

-ast -á2st: Kontrást, Palást, Phantást.

-a²st: *Dámast; *Bállàst is a Low German compound.

-at -åºt: 'Aristokrát, Pirát, Salát, Senát, Legát, Diplomát, àccurát.

-à²t: *Vívàt, *Péreàt, Éuphràt.

-å2: Etát.

-ät -ė²ṭ: `Unive`rsitä't, Diä't.

-ate -å²tə¹: 'Asiáte, Kroáte.

-att -á2t: Rabátt.

-atte -á2to1: Krawátte, Rabátte.

-aze $-\dot{a}^2ts\dot{\theta}^1$: Strapáze.

-ee -e1: Idée, Kômitée, Livrée, Armée, Allée.

-ei $-\dot{\theta}^2 e^2$: Partéi.

-ek -é¹k: Bibliothék.

-eke -é¹ķ∂¹: `A po thé k e.

-ekt -ė²ķt: Insékt, Dialékt, perfékt (adj.).

-è²kt: *Pérfèkt (noun), *'Objèkt, *Súbjèkt (but also Perfékt, Objékt, Subjékt, especially if the latter means ragamuffin).

-el -1: Artikel, Kapitel, Matrikel, Perpendikel.

- e^2l : Hotél.

-ê1: Juwél, parallél, fidél, Kamél.

-ell -é2l: Duéll, Kastéll, Flanéll, òriginéll, ideéll.

-elle -é2lo1: Kapélle, Novélle.

-em -é1m: Problém, Extrém, Systém.

-è²m: *Réquièm.

-end -é2nt: Dividénd.

-è2nt: *Minuènd, *Súbtrahènd.

-ende -é2ndo1: Legénde, Dividénde.

-ene -é1no1: Helléne, Siréne.

-ent -e²nt: Student, Accent, intelligent, Talent, Präsent, Agent, Patent.

-è2nt: *'Orient, *'Occident, *Continent, *Insolent.

-enz -é²nţṣ: Differénz, Senténz, Florénz; but *Kóblenz.

-er -ê1: Sonpér, Dinér.

-ern $-\dot{e}^2rn$: mòdérn (fashionable; módern $m\dot{o}^1dyn$ is "to decay."), èxtérn, intérn, sùbaltérn.

-erne -é²rnə¹: Zistérne.

-ese -ė1zə1: Chinése, Askése

-eser -é¹zr: Màltéser.

-esse -é²ṣə¹: Adrésse, 'Interésse.

-est $-e^2st$: Protést, Attést. -esz $-e^2s$: Excész, Abscész.

-et (-ett) -e1: Prophét, 'Alphabét, Poét, Magnét, diskrét.

 $-\dot{\bar{e}}^{1}t$: óbsolèt.

-é²t: Billét, Duétt, Budgét (bu²džé²t), vìolétt, Bàllétt, Bouquét, Bànkétt, Kadét, Bàjonétt.

-ē1: Couplét, Filét.

-ete -é1to1: Pastéte, Rakéte.

-ette -é²tə¹: Tòilétte, Kokétte, Ròsétte.

-eur -ö¹r: Goùvernéur, Liquéur. -ez -ĕ¹ṭṣ: Dùodéz, Trapéz.

-form -fo2rm: uniform, 'Uniform, Chloroform.

-gramm -grá²m: Prográmm, Monográmm, Kilográmm (also *Kílográmm).

-id -it: perfid, splendid, Rhòmboid (rò²mbo²i¹t), Cèlluloid.

-ie -i²2-1: words borrowed directly from Latin: c.g. Fólie, Béstie, Grázie, Famílie, Emílie; in the same way in plural: Stúdien, Férien, Génien, Minerálien. Greek words, borrowed through the medium of Latin, e. g. Artérie, Histórie, Xénie, Komö'die, Tragö'die (but also *Kòmödíe and *Tràgödíe with i¹).

-t1: words borrowed from French or directly from Greek, e.g. Courtoisie, Genie, Partie, Copie, Philosophie, 'Akademie, Monarchie.

-ier -i²r: Papier, Offizier, Barbier, Panier, Kàvalier.
 -i²²e¹: *Portiér, *Bànkiér, *Rèntiér, *Chèvaliér, *Ateliér, *Colliér, *Metiér.

-i²-2-ir: ehiefly in names of nations, e.g. Indier, Bélgier; *Mágier.

-iere -į²ė́¹rə¹: Barriére, Portiére, Premiére.

-ieren -i¹rn: stùdieren, stòlzieren.

-iese -t¹zə¹: Pòrtugiese.

-iser -i¹zņ: Wàllíser.

-ik -i²k: *Lógik, *Kómik, *Grammátik, *Chrónik, *Métrik, *Poétik, *Rhetórik, *Arsénik, *Téchnik, *Phonétik, *Mechánik, *Táktik.

-t'k: *'Arithmetík, *Màthematík, *Kubík, *Fabrík, *Kåtholík, *Kritík, *Physík, *Musík, *Mòsaík, *Pôlitík, *Rèpublík, *Rubrík, *antík.

-ike -iko1: Antike.

-il -i1: Civil, Exil, Reptil.

-i2l: *April.

-ille -i²lə¹: Flòttille.

-im -i²m: Pílgrim, ínterim. -i¹m: *intím, *sublím.

-in -in: Mèdizín, Disciplín, Delphín, Kamín, Ruín, Chinín; Berlín, Stettín and other names, originally Slavie, and by analogy also some German names, e. g. Böcklín (-lin = diminutive suffix -lein).

-in: *Támburin, *Rósmarin.

-ì²n: *Hárlekìn; Slavic names, c. g. Púschkìn.

-é2: Bassin, Cousin.

-ino $-i^{1}n\dot{\partial}^{1}$: Kasinò.

 $-i^2n\dot{o}^1$: *Dóminò.

-ion -i²ôn: Natión, Rèligión, Pensión.

-ip $-i^{1}p$: Prinzip. -ire $-i^{1}r\partial^{1}$: Satire.

-is -is: *Paris, *Türkis.

-i²ș: Adónis, grátis, Básis, Anschóvis.

-11: *Logis lo1211.

-ise $-i^1z\delta^1$: Devise, Accise.

-ismus -i²smu²s: Mèchanismus, 'Egoismus. -isse -i²so¹: Coulisse, Narzisse, Prämisse.

-ist -i2st: Drogist, 'Idealist, Flö'tist, Batist.

-ister -i2str: Register, Minister.

-it -i't: 'Appetit, Profit, Jesuit, Bandit, 'Israelit.

-ì²t: *Défieit:

-i2t: *Sánskrit, *Prósit.

-ite -i¹to¹: Visite, 'Aphrodite.

-itz -i2ts: *Moritz.

-iv -if: Motiv, exclusiv, naiv, Archiv.

-tif: in grammatical terms, e. g. Nóminativ, Rélativ, tránsitiv.

-tif: áctiv, pássiv.

-ive -i'wo1: Dètective, Dèfensive.

-iz -î¹ts: Justiz, Hospiz, Notiz, Miliz, Benefiz.

-ize -i¹tṣə¹: Novize.

-ment -mé²nt: Momént, Règimént, 'Elemént, Firmamént, Fùndamént.

-mq2: *Commént, *Règlement, *Dèpartement.

-meter -metr: Thèrmométer, Kilométer.

-mē¹tî: *Diámetèr, *Hexámetèr, *Pentámetèr, *Trímetèr.

-og -o¹h²: Dialóg, Katalóg.

-oge -ogo: Philológe, Synagoge.

-oir -o²å²r: Tròttoir, Boùdoir, Rèservoir,

-ol -o'l: Symból, frivól, Tiról, Pistól, Idól.

 $-\dot{\bar{o}}^{1}l$: *'Alkohòl (also $?\dot{a}^{2}l\dot{k}\dot{\bar{o}}^{1}\dot{h}\dot{o}^{2}l$).

-ole $-\dot{\sigma}^1 l \partial^2$: Pistóle.

-om -om: Atóm, Diplóm, Idióm, Phantóm.

-on -ô¹n: Spión, Persón, Barón, Patrón.

-ð¹n: *Bábylòn.

 $-\dot{\bar{\sigma}}^{1}n$: *Dä'mòn.

-ò2n: Greek words, e. g. Léxikòn, Epithetòn.

-o2n: Kólon, Lóndon.

- - c2: only French words, e.g. Balkón, Salón, Cantón, Waggón, Bàtaillón.

- ¿2: *Cótillòn, *Pávillòn.

-one -one -one: Kanone, Patrone, 'Amazone.

-or - $\dot{\bar{\sigma}}^1 r$: Latin words: Proféssor, Pástor, Conditor, Phósphor, Sénior $(z\dot{e}^1 n \dot{z}^2 \dot{\bar{\sigma}}^1 r)$.

-ő¹r: in certain Latin words by the influence of modern Romance languages: *Humór, *Rumór, *Majór, *Tenór, *Kontór, *Motór, *Tresór; the Greck *Mèteór.

-ð1r: *Kórridòr.

-os -615: virtuós, famós, kuriós.

-o2s: Greek words, e. g. Épos, Páthos.

-ös -ō¹ṣ: nèrvö's, rèligiö's.

-ose -o¹zo¹: Frànzóse, Matróse, Vìrtuóse. -ot -o¹t: Despót, Idiót, Zelót, devót.

-ő¹t: Despót, Idiót, Zelót, devót. -ő¹: *Trieót, *Pàletót.

-ott -o2t: bankrótt, bigótt, Kompótt, Schafótt.

-otte -o2to1: Marótte, Cocótte.

-ult -ú2/t: Tumúlt.

-umph $-\dot{u}^2 \dot{m}^2 f$: Triúmph.

-un - \hat{u}^1n : Kattún, immún, Neptún, Tribún. - $\hat{\ddot{o}}^2$: *Verdun $we^2rd\mathring{\ddot{o}}^2$.

-und -ú2nt: Vàgabúnd.

-une -û1no1: Commune, Harpune.

-ur -ur: Natur, Kultur, Frisur, Pandur, obscur.

 $-\dot{\bar{u}}^{1}r$: *Aúgùr, *Púrpùr.

-us -ū1s: *confús, *abstrús.

-u2s: minus, 'Usus.

-ù²s: Hábitùs, Fídibùs.
-û¹t: àbsolút, 'Institút, Rekrút, Dispút, Tribút.

-ù2t: *Lilipùt.

-yl $-\hat{\ddot{u}}^1 l$: A sý l.

-nt

-yll(e) -\div l(\partial): Ber\deltall, Id\deltall(e), Sib\deltalle.

-yr - $\dot{\tilde{u}}^1 r$ (or $\dot{\tilde{u}}^1 r$): Satýr (or Sátýr).

120. If to a foreign word a German termination is added, as a rule the accentuation of the foreign word is main-

tained. E. g. Persón — persö'nlich, Persö'nlichkèit; Prìnzész — Prìnzéssin; Kaninchen of foreign words with German terminations.

Mèdiziner; Paris — Pariser, London — Londonèr, Athén — Athéner.

The principal exceptions are:

- 1) Adjectives derived from foreign words and ending in -isch have the principal stress on the syllable which immediately precedes -isch (i.e. the same accentuation as the Latin adjectives in -icus): therefore not only mèdizínisch (Mèdizín), semítisch (Semíte), but also mùsikálisch (Musík), algebráisch ('Algebrà), chàrakterístisch (Charákter), plàtónisch (Plátò), ä'thérisch ('Äther), àrábisch ('Arabèr, Arábien), bàlsámisch (Bálsàm), klimátisch (Klímà), nùmérisch (Númerùs), sàtánisch (Sátàn), kathólisch (Kàtholík); for lùthérisch (Lúther) see § 95.
- 2) A retraction of the principal accent is caused in some foreign words by the addition of -er: Phýsikèr, Krítikèr, Músikèr, Polítikèr (Physík, Kritík, Musík, Pòlitík), Chémikèr (Chemie); likewise in the names of nations with short penult: 'Italèr (Itálien), 'Arabèr (Arábien).
- 3) Foreign words which have a secondary stress on -or, -on, -ant receive the principal one, if a syllable is added; accordingly they undergo a shifting of stress, similar to that found in Latin; e. g. Dóctór $d\hat{\sigma}^2 k t \hbar \hat{\sigma}^1 r = D$ óctór en $d\hat{\sigma}^2 k t \hbar \hat{\sigma}^1 r \eta$, Dä'mòn $d\hat{e}^2 m \hat{\sigma}^1 n = D$ a'mónen $d\hat{e}^2 m \hat{\sigma}^1 n \eta$, Cónsonant Cónsonanten.
- 121. The stress-groups, of which a sentence is made up (cf. § 5), show a certain rhythm, even in prose. In accordance with the system of accentuation prevailing in stress-groups the Tentonic languages, viz. the use of the stress in gentless trongest stress on the root-syllable (§ 94) we can perceive preeminently a falling rhythm in German; preceding unstressed syllables only seldom involve a rising rhythm, but are treated rather as anacrusis (Auftact); accordingly we usually say: die | Kirche | wûrde vom | Blitze ge|trôffen and not: die Kirch|e wûrd|e vom Blitz|e getrôf|fen. The stress-groups are graduated according to their force; the

added figures indicate the force of the sentence-stresses, 1 the strongest, 5 the weakest.

A stress-group is reckoned from one stressed syllable to the other; but the distribution of the stresses themselves in a sentence is determined by grammatical, logical (or psychological) and physiological factors; cf. §§ 85, 3. 86 and the different forms of stress-groups in das ist ein Schlosz § 125.

It is not easy to indicate with absolute certainty in each case, to which of these three (or four) factors every sentence-stress is due, as they do not exclude each other, but rather cooperate. If we treat these three (or four) factors individually in the following paragraphs, we shall be paying attention for the time being to one only of the qualities of the sentence-stress and setting aside the two (or three) others.

122. In unemotional speech where no special circumstances are assumed, i. e. in sentences the accentuation of which is not influenced by special logical or psychostress; notional and relational words.

122. In unemotional speech where no special circumstances are assumed, i. e. in sentences the accentuation of which is not influenced by special logical or psychological reasons, in general the following rules for the accentuation of the individual parts of speech can be given:

As in a single word, so also in a whole sentence, the material element is more important than the formal one, and therefore the former has a stronger stress than the latter. Accordingly the notional words (Begriffswörter), i. e. nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adjective-adverbs, have a stronger stress than the relational words (Beziehungswörter), i. e. auxiliary verbs, articles, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbial particles. As the notional words are more variable than the relational words, which are repeated far oftener than the former, the rule can also be expressed thus: a variable word has a stronger stress than a stable one. Accordingly: the auxiliary verb has a weaker stress than the verb (ich werde lésen; ich habe gelésen); the article is subordinated to the noun (der Knábe); the pronoun to the verb (ich lése). The preposition, standing before or after, has a weaker stress than the word governed by it (mit Waffen; die Nacht dùrch; dùrch diesen).

There are, however, two strange exceptions: 1) the preposition has the stronger stress, if it is followed by a personal pronoun (mít ùns; vón ihm; óhne èuch; béi ihr); 2) the preposition (or rather adverbial particle) has the principal stress in a verbal juxtaposition and therefore also, if it is separated from the verb (mitbringen, ich bringe mit); cf. § 123, 3.

A relational word is very often stressless as enclitic or proclitic (k $\dot{\phi}$ m m t sie $\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\phi}^2m^1t\dot{s}\dot{t}^1$; sie k $\dot{\phi}$ m m t $z\dot{t}^1\dot{k}\dot{h}\dot{\phi}^2m^1t$; sehwarz oder weisz $\dot{s}\dot{b}\dot{\alpha}^2r\dot{t}\dot{s}\dot{\phi}^1d\dot{r}|w\dot{\phi}^2g^2s$; Hàus und Hóf $\dot{h}\dot{b}^2g^2su^2ut|\dot{h}\dot{\phi}^2f$).

123. The notional words show different degrees of sen-

tence-stress amongst themselves; e. g.:

1) In general a noun has a stronger stress than an adjective, and an adjective a stronger one than an adverb: ein zi'emlich gröszer Mánn; but very often this proportion is disturbed by the logical or psychological stress.

2) A verb has usually a weaker stress than its predicative nomen or its object; er macht ihn gesúnd; er macht eine Tűr; sie wä'hlten den Fürsten zum Kö'nig.

- 3) A verb has a weaker stress than the adverbial determinatives of place, time, and manner: er lèbt éinsàm; er fährt in die Stádt; er kommt hénte; er rèitet geschwind.
- 124. Two notional words (chiefly nouns) so closely connected with each other that they denote only one idea have stresses of different strength, and mostly the stronger one is on the second word. The same tendency to increase the force of the stress at the end showed itself in the juxtapositions; each other.

The following cases may be especially mentioned:

- 1) Parallel expressions connected by a relational word: Tod und Téufel, Haus und Hof, Schritt vor Schritt, jung und alt, etc.
- 2) Appositions, titles, surnames: Mûtter Erde, Våter Rhéin, ein Glas Wasser, ein Pfund Tabak, Käiser Friedrich, Hèrr Dóctor, Doctor Müller, Jàcob Grimm, etc.
- 3) Nouns and pronouns with a prepositional attribute: der Knabe mit dem Hunde, der Ritter mit dem Löwen, der auf dem Dache, die am Fénster, etc. Especially so

the attributive expressions of place: die Schlächt bei Lützen, der König von Schweden.

4) If a word is combined with a partitive or possessive genitive, the second element has the stronger stress; e.g. ich habe das Bùch des Léhrers or des Lèhrers Búch gelesen. But an explanatory genitive, as it denotes the real idea, attracts the stronger stress in either case, e.g. das Làster des Trúnkes or des Trúnkes Làster (= der Trunk) ist verächtlich.

The logical and psychological sentence-stresses are of a rhetorical character and are not attached to a certain part of speech. In the sentence das ist ein Logical and psychological Schlosz each of the four words can have the sentenceprincipal stress: dás ist ein | Schlòsz, das íst | ein Schlosz, das | ist ein | Schlosz, das ist ein | Schlosz, according to the individual idea to be expressed by the sentence; for, by a stronger stress is distinguished anything that in view of the thought (logically) or in view of the feeling (psychologically) appears to be important to the speaker (subjectively), or is intended to appear important to the addressed person (objectively). Or, in other words, we can say that those words have weaker or no stress which could easily be supplied, if they were suppressed, as often happens in a telegram; e.g. (der) Váter (ist) gestern gestorben, übermòrgen (findet die) Beérdigung (statt).

As in a single word the natural accentuation can be deranged by the logical or psychological accent (cf. § 86), so in a sentence too; e. g. we say Jácob Grimm instead of Jácob Grimm (cf. § 124, 2), if he is to be contrasted with Wilhèlm Grimm.

There are a few words which are especially prone to attract the principal sentence-stress: gewisz, sicher, jedenfalls, vielleicht, schwerlich, kaum, allein, ausschlieszlich, besonders, vor allem, am meisten, vorzüglich and similar expressions; the adverbs ending in -weise (glücklicherweise, vorzugsweise etc.); demonstrative and interrogative pronouns (wér hat es getàn?, dieser hat es gesägt); and all the negatives.

126. With regard to the physiological word-stress reference has frequently been made to the tendency to alternate

between a stronger and weaker stress within a word (cf. §§ 86. 93. 95. 100, 3, 4, 7). The same trend is to be found within a sentence. So e.g. an enclitic or proclitic (cf. § 122) can receive a secondary stress, if a stressless syllable immediately precedes or follows; e.g. sie kómmt, but sie bekómmt; ságst du, but ságtest dù; schwárz oder wéisz, but schwárze óder wéisze; Hàus und Hóf, but erwèrben ùnd besítzen.

On the other hand, the principal stress can be reduced to a secondary one, also for physiological reasons; for a succession of equally strong stresses would require several strong impulses of expiration, which would follow immediately upon each other, without the air of the preceding ones being quite consumed; so the gymnasts' device frisch, fréi, fróh, frómm becomes frisch, fréi, fróh, frómm; kéin Ménsch war gekómmen is often pronounced kèin Ménsch war gekómmen, although a strong logical emphasis lies upon kein.

Appendix.

Materials for practical exercises.

I. Consonantism.

Dampf, sanft; Portion, Actie, Aristokratie; Barbier, Bankier, Spanier; zwar, wahr, Welle, Schwelle, Quelle, Kelle; Scene, Skizze; Schach, Schah, chemisch, hämisch; können, gönnen; Volke, folge; Clique, Biskuit, Guirlande; Chirurgie, 5 Chirurg; Auge, Aug', Augsburg, Flagge, flaggst, lagst; Genie, Genius, genial, Ingenieur; Katalog(e), Logik, Philologie; tragend, Agent; sauge, säuge, Lage, Loge, Lüge; regieren, Regie, Regent, aufregend; Colleg, College; Doge, Dogge; wachen, wagen, wacht, wagt, Wagner; liegen, liegt, lagen, lag; Mon-10 arch, barg, Echo, Egoismus; Dachs, wachst, wächst, nächst, sächsisch; Frauchen, rauchen, Chemnitz, Charfreitag, Check, Chef; Czar, Czeche; Bronze, Gaze, Grazie, Zeus; Station, Hospital, Spital; Asse, Ase, Asche, Courage; Service, Sergeant; Ignorant, Ungarn, Finger, Fink, fing; Lützow, Charkow; brav(e), Nerve, nervös, Pulver, Sklave, Wilhelmshaven, Frevel, Vers, Verdict; Bund, bunt; Kalb, Kälber; Knäbehen, Knäblein; Magd, Mägde, Mädchen; schallen, schallt, schalt, bald; heilsam, seltsam; lang, Klänge; März, Schmerz, mehr; drüben, trüben; Diener, Diner, Dessert, Corps; Mexico, exakt, Xerxes; Cham-20 pagner, Compagnie, Compagnon; Detail, Bataille; Thron, Tapferkeit, Rauheit, Papier, Local, Tier, Stier, Zier, Ahorn; unachtsam, beobachten; säen, sähen; beenden, vollenden, Ocean; wate, Watte, Wade, Kladde; Bahnkasse, Bankkasse; Selbstsucht, Selbstzucht; fort, Fort; Ganges.

II. Vocalism.

Elendsten; Elemente; lebender, lebendiger, Indier; entgegenrennen; Patient, redend; Ferse, Färse, wehren, währen; sehen, Seeen, sähen, Schären, scheren; Alliance, Bronze, Athene; gebet, Gebet, gäbet; Charakter, Charaktere, charakteristisch; Kaffee, Café; beredt; Idee, ideell; fehle, Fälle, fühle, Fülle; 5 heute, Häute; Bayer, Affaire; Refrain, Waise, Weise; Pension, Pensum; Metrum, Parfum; Finanz, Chanee; Bastion, Balcon; pfui, Zuidersee, Duisburg; Voigtland, Loisach; Yssel, Radetzky, Schwyz, psychisch; Maestricht, Athenaeum; Revue, Kotzebue; Boeotien, Soest, Boer; Curator, Curatoren; musz, Musze; 10 kriegte; vierhundertvierzehn; vielleicht; Jena, jene, jenseits; Urteil, Ursache; Stadt, Städte; Profit, Deficit; Wüste, wüszte; Bruch; waschen, wusch; Mond; nächste; vorbei; Hochzeit, Hochsonmer; Studium, Student; Drama, dramatisch; Osten, Ostern, Östreich; messen, Masz; schosz, Schosz; barsch, Barsch; 15 irdisch, Erde.

III. Accentuation.

Tadelte, tadle; Hoheit, Ameise; Otto; Erzgauner, Erzherzog; ungeheuer, Ungeheuer; unzählig, unhöflich, undeutlich, undeutbar, unbeschadet, ungehalten; schwarzrotgold, blaugrau, hellgrau; uralt(e), urplötzlich, urbar; stocksteif(e), steinreich(e); altenglisch; allmächtig, allseitig; Orlamünde; Bornholm; Süd- 5 deutschland, Südengland; Karfreitag, Karwoche; Oberstleutnant, Oberleutnant: Walküre: auszerordentlich: wahrhaftig. wahrhaft; unterrichten, unterscheiden; frohlocken, willfahren, ratschlagen; Miszgunst, miszgönnen, Miszhandlung, miszverstehn; Satan, Organ, Grobian; Glasur, Purpur; Hornist, Hor- 10 nisse; Subjekt; August; Moral, Metall, Marschall, fatal; Husar, Altar: Artikel, Flanell, parallel; Accent, Continent, Student; Studie, Genie, Partie, Copie, Grazie: Paris, Türkis, gratis; Motiv, activ, naiv; Spion, Dämon, Kolon, Salon; Renntier, Rentier; Prinzesz; Musik, Logik, Technik, Kritik, Metrik, Musiker; Tenor, 15 Pastor, Major; elegant, Consonant(en); Arabien, Araber, arabisch; Katholik, katholisch; Abscheu, abscheulich; lutherisch; lebendige; Urteil, Vorurteil; damit, fürlich, fürbasz; Halbjahr, Jahrzehnt; beispielsweise, glücklicherweise; Elsasz-Lothringen; Hansnarr, Herrgott; einerlei; Gottseibeiuns, Springinsfeld, Stell- 20 dichein; modern; Legende; Ostelbier; Vorderhand, vorderhand.



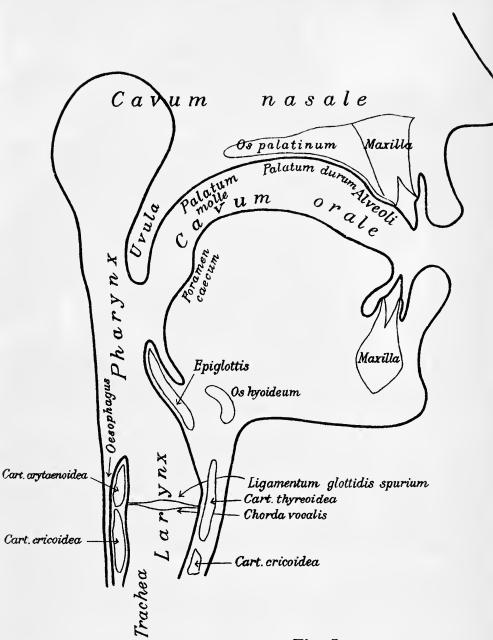
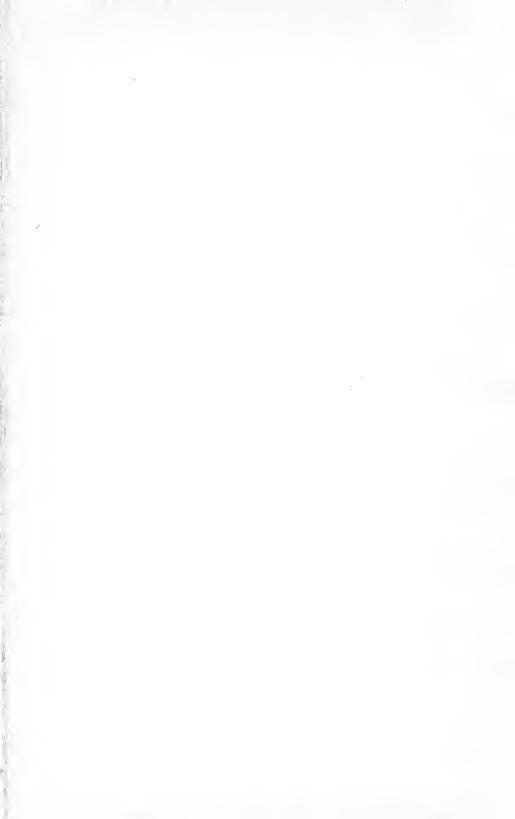


Fig. I.
The organs of speech (about natural size).



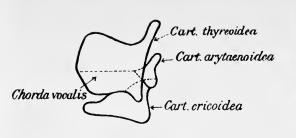


Fig. II.

The cartilages of the larynx, seen from the left side.

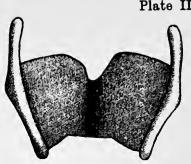


Fig. III.

The cartilago thyreoidea from the back.



Fig. IV.

The left half of the cartilago cricoidea with the left cartilago arytaenoidea, seen from the front.



Fig. V.

Section showing the front half of the larynx, seen from the back; a, a) ventricular bands; b, b) vocal chords, between these two pairs are the laryngeal ventricles, between b and b is the glottis vera; c) trachea; d) epiglottis; e, e) cart. cricoidea; f, f) cart. thyreoidea.













Fig. VI.

The forms of the glottis and the different positions of the cartilagines arytaenoideae: 1) breathing; 2) voiceless sound; 3) h; 4) voiced sound; 5) glottal stop; 6) whispering.











Fig. VII.

The positions of the lips.





Fig. VIII. The uvular trill r.



Fig. 1X. The mediopalatal occlusive sounds g, k; the dotted line at the top of the tongue indicates the articulation of the mediopalatal fricatives g and k^2 .



Fig. X. The prepalatal fricatives j and h^i .



Fig. XI.

The alveolar d, t, and l; the dotted lines indicate the articulation of the alveolar nasal n.





Fig. XII. The alveolar z and s.



Fig. XIII. The alveolar \dot{z} and \dot{s} .

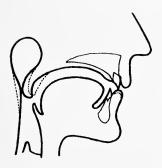


Fig. XIV.

The labiodental p^2 ; the dotted line at the lower lip indicates the articulation of w and f; the dotted lines at the uvula indicate the articulation of m^2 .



Fig. XV.

The bilabial b and p^1 ; the dotted line at the lower lip indicates the articulation of b; the dotted lines at the uvula indicate the articulation of the bilabial m and p^1 .





Fig. XVI. $\bar{u}^{\, 1}$.



Fig. XVII. $\bar{o}^{\,\iota}$.



Fig. XVIII. a^{s} . The dotted lines indicate the articulation of the nasalized \bar{q}^{s} .



Fig. XIX. 91.



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Fig. XX. $\bar{\imath}^1$.



Fig. XXI. \tilde{e}^{i} .



Fig. XXII. $\overline{\delta}^{1}$.





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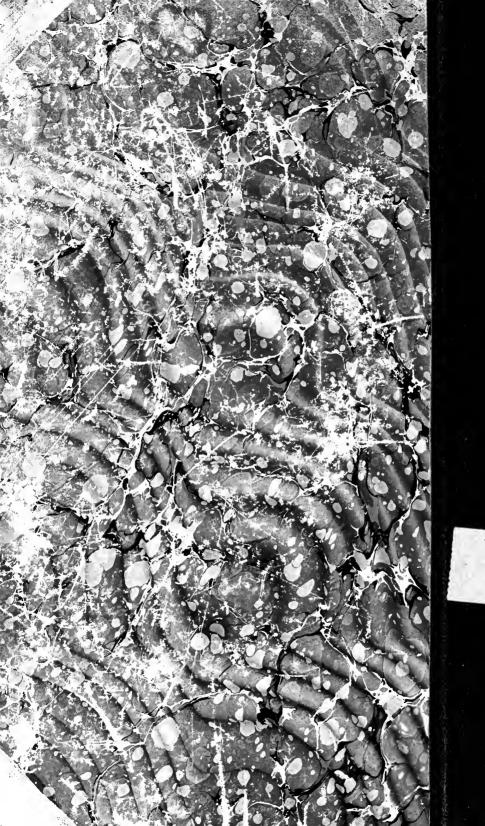
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